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ABSTRACT

This document consists of the fifth, sixth, and seventh sections of a book of readings on issues related to adult career development. The two chapters in the fifth section deal with training programs for adult career counselors. "The New Career Development Professional: A Training Model" (Florence Lewis and Janice Chiappone) examines changes that affect the career development professional and discusses how these changes have influenced individuals, organizations, and career development professionals. "Training Professionals for Career Development Responsibilities in Business and Industry" (Martin Gerstein and Neal Chalofsky) focuses on the theoretical and conceptual foundations for adult career development education, issues related to developing education and training programs, and elements of graduate degree programs. The one chapter in section six is "Evaluation: Measuring Effectiveness of Adult Career Development Practice" (Robert Bhaerman and Robert Campbell). It asks four general evaluation questions before examining the evaluation of adult career development programs. The one chapter in section seven is "Future Trends in Adult Career Development" (Donald Super). This chapter looks at socioeconomic trends (the aging population; the employment of women, ethnic minorities, and the handicapped; and the Third World) and presents a life-span perspective of adult career development. This life-span perspective looks at transitions from school to work, settling down, adapting to stability and instability, entering the maintenance stage, deceleration, and the adjustment to retirement. A final part of the chapter considers changing programs, methods, and measures for a changing society. (NB)

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SECTION V:

TRAINING PROGRAMS

PREPARING OURSELVES . . .

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CHAPTER 19

The New Career Development Professional: A Training Model

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In the recent past, numerous changes have emerged to affect the career development professional. These changes include developmental changes, technological changes, economic changes, cultural changes, and demographic changes. Coupled with today's economic uncertainty, diminished resources, increased education and underemployment, higher divorce rates, and increased numbers of women in the work force there is a need to both understand the impact of these changes and to help prepare adults for contiual change. The one thing that is certain about future employment is change. People will have to be able to adapt to the changing environment.

In this chapter, we will examine some of these changes and how they have influenced individuals, organizations, and career development professionals. (See Figure 1.) A new clientele in different settings and new activities have led to the need for a new career development professional with new skills. (See Figure 2). An example of a program designed to train the new career development professional will be presented.

CHANGES AFFECTING THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT PROFESSIONAL

Technological Changes

Technological innovations in the work place represent one of the major changes affecting the careers of adults. The world's technology is doubling every 20 years. Increased automation and robotics are beginning to pervade American life. The number of Americans employed in the industrial sector is falling sharply whereas the number of people in the information sector of the economy is rising just as sharply. The office is replacing the factory as the center of the economy. In fact, more than

Figure 1

The Growth of the Career Development Profession

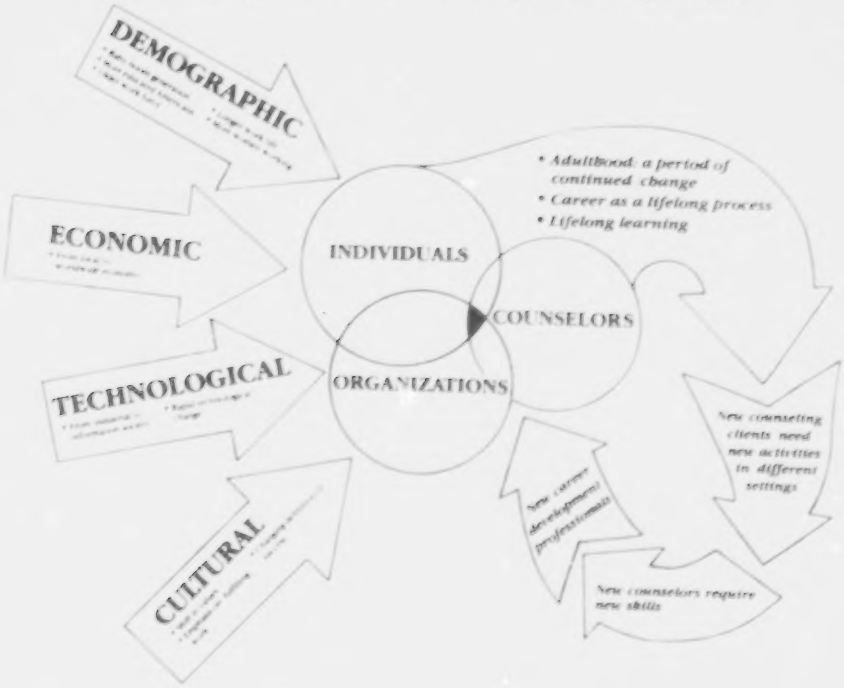

Figure 2

Career Development: Settings and Activities

half of the national work force collects, manipulates, and disseminates information.

The skills required for the careers of the 1980s and beyond will continue to shift. Many low-skill, low-education jobs will disappear and many new jobs will emerge requiring additional training and skills. According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, rapid growth is expected to contuinue through 1990 in jobs for white-collar and professional workers and for service workers, whereas blue-collar workers and farm workers will continue to disappear from the work force.

As manufacturing becomes more automated, workers will have to shift to new jobs in the information and service sector. That includes banking, accounting, insurance, and real estate; hotels, restaurants, and airlines; medicine, law, and engineering; data processing, word processing, publishing, and broadcasting.

As the United States continues to move from an industrial society to an informational society, many new positions will emerge. Scientists, mathematicians, engineers, computer analysts, and designers will be in great demand to continually create and advance the expanding technology. More and more paraprofessional technicians will be needed for the high technology industries. Computer repair technicians, computer operators, chemistry and engineering technicians, and biomedical technicians will be in demand to keep the information society running smoothly. Sales, marketing, and training personnel will also be needed to service management information systems and to train people to understand, use, and adjust to the advent of comptuers in their lives.

These technological changes in the work place mean changes in the ways people are employed, responsibilities are assigneed to them, and work skills are required of them. These changes are forecasted to continue and may require a lifetime of learning and retraining.

Economic Changes

The greatest economic change that has affected the career development of adults is the move from a local economy to a world econmy. The United States is increasingly becoming part of a global world marketplace. The economy used to be predominantly local and internal; the United States consumed most of what it produced and produced most of what it consumed. That is changing rapidly. As the United States becomes more of an importer/exporter of basic goods, jobs are disappearing permanently from such huge industries as steel and automobiles, leaving many people unemployed and without employable job skills. These individuals are forced to seek retraining to become job-marketable in a society that no longer needs the skills they possess.

Cultural Changes

A number of cultural changes have occurred that influence the career deveopment of individuals. Some of these changes are a shift in work values, emphasis on fulfilling work, changing definition of success, growing acceptance of career change, and an increase in dual-career couples.

In a world of increasingly rapid change and high mobility, ideas about what makes a successful career and the meaning of work itself are being reevaluated. With a general rise in socioeconomic status and educational levels, more people have rising expectations about what constitutes a happy and fulfilling life. People are questioning their happiness at work and are seeking more meaning through their work.

Yankelovich (1979) indicated that the meaning of work has changed for many individuals. These changes include revised definitions of success that place less emphasis on material achievement and more emphasis on personal fulfillment. His research suggests that people are looking for three main psychological benefits from their work: an opportunity to advance to more interesting and satisfying work; a desire to do a good job; and a yearning to find self-fulfillment through meaningful work. He writes that workers want to become involved, committed,

and challenged in their work, and want greater participation in decision making on the job.

A more highly educated work force implies growing interest in jobs that provide opportunities for use of abilities, self-expression, and fulfillment, along with traditional economic and material rewards. People have always worked for economic reasons, but now, in addition to the economic motive, there is a powerful psychological desire for self-actualization. Its effects are a change in work values and an emphasis on the quality of work life.

Along with the emphasis on fulfilling work has been a growing acceptance of career change. In the past, it was assumed that people chose one career that would last all their adult lives until retirement. Today, the average worker will change careers three to five times in a lifetime, and more people are thinking in terms of long-range, second, and multiple careers. Women who have reared children, along with both men and women whose careers have provided financial security but not a sense of accomplishment, will be increasingly likely to seek second careers in which they can find fulfillment. There is a growing trend toward job changes in midcareer as people seek career satisfaction and a higher quality of life.

For many, the midlife period may be a time of transition to reappraise lives, values, goals, and careers (Levinson, 1977). This reappraisal may lead to midcareer change. Incompatible interests with a current career, a desire to have more control over the future, and a desire to find more meaningful work influence an individual to change careers (Neapolitan, 1980; Osherson, 1980).

Another cultural change has been the emergence of dual-career couples. More than 40% of married couples in the United States are both pursuing careers; social indicators suggest that these dual-career couples will continue to rise in number. Increasing numbers of women are preparing for careers by continuing their education, and higher levels of education are associated with increasing numbers of women who are entering professional fields. Because professional women are likely to marry professional men, the dual-career pattern will become more and more prevalent in this society. This change is forcing husbands and wives to give increasing attention to how to manage their dual-career families (Rapaport & Rapaport, 1976).

Demographic Changes

The United States is becoming a nation of adults. Profound demographic shifts are pushing the average age of the population and work force upward. By the year 2000, the largest age group will be 25–44-year-olds, with a rising curve for 45–64-year-olds.

Because of the low birthrate of the 1960s, the number of young workers aged 18–24 is expected to decline from 29 million to 24 million by 1990. In addition, the baby boom generation is moving into the adult years and there is a sharp increase in workers in the 25–44 age bracket. The proportion of the work force aged 25–44 will increase by 10 percentage points from 1975–1990 so that by the 1990s it will constitute about 53% of the total work force (Freeman, 1979).

These factors will have far-reaching consequences for the job market. Individuals in the 25–44-year-old range will undoubtedly face fierce competition for promotions and supervisory positions, and many may face problems obtaining jobs in the professional and managerial arena. They will have to compete in an increasingly dense labor market environment. Only a limited number of workers will progress to higher positions, competition will be intense, and disappointment widespread. The enormous size of this group—over 50% of the work force—will make its career concerns impossible to ignore.

According to the U.S. Bureau of the Census, the population aged 65 and over will increase steadily from 24 million in 1978 to more than 29 million by 1990. Also, the number of people aged 55–64 will continue to rise. Between 1900 and 1980 the life expectancy of Americans increased more than 40%. Advances in nutrition, health, and medical care have all contributed to this increase in longevity. This has led to a longer work life for many as well as to more time spent in education, retirement, and leisure. Early retirement programs are becoming numerous, and employees who have retired from one career may consider other part-time careers. Also, extended employment becomes more of a possibility for the older worker because of a rise in the mandatory retirement age.

The large-scale movement of women into the labor force is an important demographic change. The U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics indicates that in 1990 the overall labor force participation rate of women is expected to be about 51%. It has become more socially acceptable for wives and mothers to work outside the home, and the rising number of unmarried women in the population has made it economically necessary for many single, separated, divorced, and widowed women to establish their own careers.

Today's female labor force consists of a high proportion of college graduates. Because further education usually means a better chance of employment, the most significant gains have occurred among the highly educated.

Perhaps the most significant recent change in the labor force has involved working mothers. The labor force participation rate of women with children under age 6 has more than tripled in the past decade. Today, almost 50% of those women hold paid jobs. The sharply rising educational levels of women, the acceptance of dual-career couples, and the high incidence of women reentering the work force soon after having children suggest that the increase will continue.

There has also been a rapid rise of educational attainment in the United States as a result of the dramatic increase in the number of people completing high school and continuing their education. Almost two-thirds of the adults in the United States 17 and older are now high school graduates. Research suggests that the more education people have, the more education they want, and the more they participate in further learning activities (Cross, 1981).

Because of a number of social, economic, and technological changes, the United States is rapidly becoming a "lifelong learning society" where individuals continually need the benefits of education to keep marketable skills, further career change, or enhance self-fulfillment.

Developmental Changes

One of the major changes affecting adult career development is the recognition of adulthood as a period of continual change and potential development, as opposed to one of stability and certainty. Adults continually experience changes or transitions in different areas of their lives. These changes often cause them to reevaluate their values, goals, and choices and to move to greater growth and development. Changes that occur in adulthood have no absolute timing, although some events are linked to specific ages by social expectation. Different adults experience changes at different times in their lives, and some not at all. Although adult theorists disagree on how to explain transitions, most agree that adulthood is characterized by stability that is bridged by these transitions. It is the study of these adult transitions that has been the focus of much of the adult development literature and research in recent years.

Career is an important theme in adult development, particularly during adult transitions (Gottfredson, 1977; Schlossberg, 1984). Smelser and Erikson (1980) identified work as one of the two major themes of adulthood. A major portion of an adult's identity and feelings of self-worth is often expressed through work, which absorbs a great deal of the time and energy.

Along with the shift in the perception of adulthood as a period of continual change is a shift in the view of career development as a lifelong process. Traditionally, the field of guidance or vocational counseling focused on adolescence and was limited to testing and finding one vocation for a lifetime. Given all the changes mentioned earlier, it is no longer feasible for individuals to choose one career in adolescence and continue in that same career for their whole lives. Society and the economy are changing rapidly and forcing people to choose and rechoose many times during their lives and to seek additional training to remain job-marketable.

People are constantly changing, and as they change, so do their career patterns and commitments. Virtually every person's work history is characterized by some kind of change. The days of "one job for life" are fading fast, and there is greater recognition that career choices are required throughout one's life, not simply in adolescence. Job change rather than job continuity is becoming the norm.

Many adults are currently in transition, moving from one career to another. A College Board survey found that of the 40 million Americans in career transition, 60% will seek additional education and many have expressed a need for a variety of career services (Arbeiter, Aslanian, Schmerbeck, & Brickell, 1978). Aslanian and Brickell (1980) found that job or career change is the most common of all adult transitions and the most likely to motivate people to seek new learning opportunities. When adult learners were asked what motivated their learning activities, 83% mentioned some change in their life, and for 56% of them the change was related to a job or career.

Given the social, demographic, economic, and technological changes mentioned earlier, lifelong learning has also become necessary, desirable, and acceptable for many adults. Change is now so great that no amount of education during youth can adequately prepare adults to meet the

changing demands of society. More and more adults are recognizing the need to continue their education and to retrain in order to remain marketable in a society that has undergone tremendous change (Bolles, 1979).

CHANGES CREATE NEW NEEDS

Some of the needs all of these changes have pinpointed for individuals, organizations, and the career development professional are the following:

Individuals

- need to become aware of adult development issues and how these issues affect their lives;
- need to realize that change is the norm in adulthood and learn to become more comfortable with change;
- need to be willing and prepared to continually reassess and reevaluate their goals, values, intersts, and career decisions;
- need to continually assess their skills and be willing to retrain to stay job-marketable;
- need to develop career decision-making skills;
- need to become more proactive in managing their careers;
- need to stay abreast of changes in the economy and society and know how these changes affect the job market and their career goals;
- need to balance family and work concerns at different stages in their lives;
- need to prepare for the possibility of midcareer changes, second careers, and what may be long retirement years; and
- need to take responsibility for their careers.

Organizations

- need to understand adult development issues;
- need to be aware of and respond to changing employee work values;
- need to improve job-employee match;
- need to provide alternatives and opportunities for midcareer, dual-career, plateaued, and older employees;
- need to be prepared to help women enter and reenter the work force throughout their lives;
- need to improve human resource planning and development activities;
- need to keep employee turnover at a minimum by creating opportunities within the company;
- Need to develop programs to increase productivity and quality of work life, such as job sharing, flexible benefits, flexible work schedules, part-time jobs, flexible retirement plans, quality control circles, shared decision making, flexible career structures, and day-care programs;
- need to prepare career planning programs with multiple options for employees; and

- need to tie career development activities into the goals of the corporation.

Career Development Professional

- need to be aware of adult development issues;
- need to view career development as a lifelong process;
- need to stay aware of the changes taking place in the economy, society, and job market;
- need to help clients interpret these changes so they can take charge of their careers;
- need to help clients continually reassess their goals, values, interests, and career decisions;
- need to teach clients career decision-making skills;
- need to help clients cope with change;
- need to consider how activities related to self, career, and family interact throughout the entire life span;
- need to help clients prepare for retirement years, the possibility of second careers, and a longer work life;
- need to be aware of and educate clients about stereotypes and biases in sex, race, age, and culture;
- need to design and implement human resource planning systems and provide career support to employees;
- need to teach clients skills to manage their careers;
- need to be aware of and provide assistance with all the complexities of the dual-career and child care issues;
- need to help men and women prepare for multiple roles throughout their lives; and
- need to develop evaluation of their services and programs for accountability purposes.

These changes have also created new clients in different settings as well as new activities, which has led to the need for a new career development professional with new skills. All of these changes have brought many new clients including older workers, disabled workers, divorced clients, reentry women, midcareer employees, dissatisfied workers, plateaued employees, special interest groups, preretirement individuals, and dual-career couples. In addition, organizations have become new clients of career development services.

As the clients change, the kinds of activities appropriate to their concerns and needs change, and the settings where these activities take place have expanded from the traditional settings, such as schools, to include new settings, such as business and industry (See Figure 2).

As the presenting problems of clients change, the kinds of activities that are appropriate to a career counseling intervention must also change. Clients may need to be taught *how* to cope with change, *how* to find information, *how* to conduct a job search campaign, *how* to make career decisions, rather than to be offered answers to career questions. Career counselors of adults must develop and expand on the model of adulthood as a process of lifelong change. With this model counselors can help their

clients to be more proactive in their work life. In this way, career counselors will become participants and change agents in the dynamic process of career development in the coming decades.

A NEW CAREER DEVELOPMENT GRADUATE PROGRAM

In the spring of 1980, a group of career counselors, educators, and academic administrators began to develop a new graduate program. A master's program in career development would be needed to respond to the many economic, cultural, demographic, and technological changes in contemporary society. Such a program would develop professionals who could take a proactive role in assisting clients to cope with these changes.

In response to the pervasiveness of change in everyday life, the program would prepare graduates for a wide range of clients in many different situations. In response to contemporary models of adult development, the program would provide graduates with a thorough grounding in the theories and practices useful to assisting adults in transition. In order to respond to the need for new career development activities in new settings, the program would draw on the disciplines of management, psychology, and career development. Graduates of this program would be prepared to assist clients, both individuals and organizations, to understand adult and career development, and to facilitate their acquisition of the skills and the knowledge required to respond to, and to cope with, change.

The need for a new counselor equipped with new skills and a thorough preparation in adult and career development generated a new model for the education of career counselors. Programs preparing counselors to work in the career counseling area have traditionally been housed in counseling, or the educational psychology curriculum, where the main emphasis has been on preparing skilled counselors first, and skilled career specialists second. Although these programs have been successfully preparing counselors for many years, the demands of their curriculum and unit requirements generally precluded students from taking more than two or three classes in the career counseling area.

In order to build a curriculum that included many of the strengths of the graduate programs in counseling while adding a concentration on career and adult issues, the planning group devised a flexible and ingenious curriculum. The program was developed at John F. Kennedy University in Orinda, a San Francisco Bay Area community. Kennedy with its evening and weekend classes is a fortunate choice for such a program. As a school for adults in midcareer, the upper division and graduate schools provided encouragement, assistance, and an ideal format for the birth of a career development program. The ideals and goals of the program matched those of the school. In addition, the initiation of the graduate program in career development facilitated the formation and staffing of a long-awaited career development center for the Kennedy student body.

In creating this program the planning group established the following goals for its curriculum:

- to prepare counselors with counseling skills and a thorough knowledge of the theories of adult development;
- to expose students to a full range of information about the world of work;
- to prepare students to be experts in the skills and knowledge of career development; and
- to prepare students to work in different settings (including schools, agencies, private practice, and business and industry).

To achieve these goals, John F. Kennedy University established a Master's and a Certificate Program in Career Development. The certificate program would enable counselors and other professionals with a master's degree in a related area to acquire specific career development skills. At its core, both the master's and certificate programs have classes in career development, and include classes from the School of Psychology and the School of Management. In addition, approximately one-third of the graduate program is required fieldwork. Subsequent to the initial start of the program, the National Vocational Guidance Association (now the National Career Development Association) generated a list of competencies for the vocational/career professional. These competencies provide a useful model for discussion of the areas of interest covered in the Kennedy graduate program. The six areas are: General Counseling, Information, Individual/Group Assessment, Management/Administration, Implementation, and Consultation. Each of these areas is addressed in the graduate program.

1. General Counseling
   The Career Counseling Interview
   Career Counseling for Special Populations
   Group Process
   Psychology of Adulthood
   Personality and Psychotherapy
2. Information
   Philosophy of Work: Meaning and Mission
   (In this class, designed specifically for this program, students explore and develop an in-depth understanding of the historical and philosophical perspectives on the cultural meanings of work.)
   Theories of Career Development
   World of Work
   (In addition to an analysis of the major sectors of the economy, students study the sectors of the local business economy, analyze their relative strengths and weaknesses, and perform case analyses of individual businesses.)
   Principles of Macroeconomics
3. Individual/Group Assessment
   Assessment Approaches in Career Development
   Practicum in Assessment
4. Management/Administration
   New Perspectives on Organizational Careers
   (Here students review the major theories of careers in organizations and prepare models of career development programs in organizations.)

Human Resource Management
Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Workshops

5. Implementation
   Career Development Techniques and Practices
   (A three-unit requirement that students fulfill by taking workshops on such topics as computerized career guidance, resume writing, managing career centers, the 16PF, and the dual-career couple.)
   Internships:
   Internal (Career Center) Internships
   (Students staff the Kennedy Career Center. Here, under careful supervision, they conduct individual counseling sessions and workshops for students and the general community. Students participate in case seminars, individual supervision, and video feedback on their performance in the center).
   External Fieldwork
   (In a wide range of settings, including many of the major corporations in the Bay Area, such as Lockheed, Bank of America, and Pacific Bell, students perform a variety of functions including developing career manuals, coordinating and conducting seminars, designing and delivering preretirement and career planning workshops, and running career centers.)
6. Consultation
   Organization and Management Theory
   Systems of Organization and Management
   Organization Development for Managers

Additional programming is provided during the Career Development Summer Institute held annually (4 days) in early August. During the institute, for which students receive academic credit, nationally-known career development practitioners and authors provide intensive programming in their specialities. Institute speakers have included Robert Waterman, coauthor of *In Search of Excellence*; Howard Figler, author of numerous books on career counseling; Beverly Kaye, consultant and author of *Up Is Not the Only Way*; and Zandy Leibowitz, consultant and author of numerous articles on adult development. In this format students of career development can learn from professionals, while meeting many other professionals who attend the institute from all over the United States and Canada. Begining in the summer of 1985, the institute will be the nucleus of an external career development master's degree program.

Effective career counselors need the skills and knowledge to provide service for many different groups of people in many different settings. The basic skills that form the nucleus of the program's curriculum include basic listening and interviewing skills, assessment, gathering and giving information, and guiding clients in career decision making, developing, conducting, and evaluating career-related activities such as workshops and training programs. In addition, career development professionals may also need the skills to work in organizations that include counseling as well as consultation, program development, management, and administration skills. Career development professionals

need a knowledge of the theories of adult development and the theories of organizational change and development. They need to be familiar with a variety of specific programs required by their expanding clientele; these programs include: preretirement planning, dual-career issues, succession planning, new careers in organizations, career pathing, human resource management, and training design and implementation.

The content and structure of the career development graduate program is designed to give students the skills to cope with career concerns of adult clients and the opportunity to try out and test those new skills. Against the reality of client and organizational concerns, the curriculum of the program has shown its strengths and resilience. As career development activities increase, training programs preparing professionals to design, conduct, and evaluate these activities will also increase. The quality of these training programs has much to contribute to the future of the career development profession.

With all the aforementioned cultural, demographic, technological, and economic changes, as well as the change in accepting adulthood and career development as lifelong processes of change and development, the need to prepare individuals and organizations for the present and future changes is greater than ever. Consequently, the field of career development is expanding and the role of the career development professional is changing dramatically. Helping clients manage career and life transitions and encouraging continual career renewal are new challenges for the career development professional.

Career development has emerged as a way for organizations and individuals to look at these issues in a way that is mutually beneficial. Technological change and job obsolescence are forcing both individuals and organizations to recognize the need for career planning and the development of multiple skills and careers. Organizations are beginning to realize that career development programming may be a way to help increase productivity, reduce turnover, and meet workers' changing values. Individuals may need career planning assistance to learn more about themselves, about opportunities and changes in society and the labor market, and about skills in career decision making.

A high percentage of the work force will continue to experience career-related crises and transitions and, because change seems to be a certainty in adulthood and career development, it is important for individuals to learn to cope with changes and transitions in their lives. This has created a need for a new career development professional who can help adults become more comfortable with the inevitability of change and can teach adults career decision-making skills to cope with these changes and become managers of their own careers.

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CHAPTER 20

Training Professionals for Career Development Responsibilities in Business and Industry

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Why train individuals in adult career development? Can counseling skills be readily transferred and applied in a business setting? What do worker values and expectations have to do with the "bottom line" of a profit and loss statement? These questions and others have been addressed in the recent career development literature (Bolyard, 1981; Fisher & Gerstein, 1983; Leibowitz & Schlossberg, 1981; Smith, Piercy, & Lutz, 1982; Souerwine, 1981; and Walz, 1982).

Differing views about the efficacy of organizational career development programs have emerged. It is clear that such programs are not cure-alls for personnel woes. Yet, when well designed and implemented, they can be significant contributors to high employee morale and more effective utilization of employee skills.

Although the experience base for career development programs is not broad, a recent study by Gutteridge and Otte (1983) reviewed the career development practices of 40 major organizations throughout the country. The industrial classifications included: manufacturing, communication, wholesale and retail trade, finance, insurance and retail trade, service industries, and government. Thus, it seems that a lot of organizational career development is occurring in the world of work. This is a result of both individual and institutional efforts. Efforts by the individual include planning for, entering, and becoming successful in a career. Efforts by

institutions include career management systems (recruitment and selection), human resource allocation, appraisal and evaluation, and training and development activities. The institution supports and enhances the individual efforts with the expectation that both the individual and the organization will profit.

Walz (1982) identified a series of characteristics of optimum career development systems in organizations. Central to an optimum system is the leadership of an in-house specialist(s) knowledgeable about and skilled in career development. Extensive data have not been collected about the educational background of training and development specialists responsible for organizational career management programs. Yet, it is assumed that most have come from a college background of personnel administration, business administration, or liberal arts.

Training professionals to deliver adult career development services should involve emphasis in human resource management, training and development, and counseling. The major professional organization for career development, the National Career Development Association (formerly the National Vocational Guidance Association), has recently addressed the competencies needed for training career guidance personnel (Phillips-Jones, Jones, & Drier, 1981). The American Society for Training and Development has also addressed this in its recent training and development competencies study (McLagan, 1983). Guidance training programs at universities around the country are focusing upon the preparation of career development specialists for human resource positions in business, industry, and government. Also, more employers are establishing career planning units and counseling and employee assistance arms to improve human resource areas. The balance of this chapter will focus on the theoretical and conceptual foundations for adult career development (ACD) education, issues related to developing education and training programs in ACD, and elements of graduate degree programs in ACD.

THEORETICAL AND CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS FOR ADULT CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Historically, in the career development literature, the emphasis has been on initial vocational choice (high school years) and implementation of this choice through training or postsecondary education. The concept treats career choice as an event that happens at a point in time, is permanent and irreversible, and has a lifelong effect. Thus, for almost 50 years from the establishment of Breadwinners' College in Boston in 1905 until the launching of the Career Pattern Study at Teachers College, Columbia University in 1951 (Borow, 1964), career counselors worked almost exclusively with adolescents in a career choice model known as trait-factor. This system assumes that a straightforward matching of an individual's abilities and interests with the world's vocational opportunities can be accomplished and solves that individual's problems of vocational choice (Osipow, 1983).

The model changed slowly over the years. The vocational testing movement grew from the trait-factor point of view. Such commonly used measures in career counseling as the Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory and

the General Aptitude Test Battery are based on the trait-factor stream of thought.

The developmental or self-concept model has grown out of the work of Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma (1951) and Super (1957) on the developmental side, and Rogers (1951) on the self-concept side. These theoreticians developed an approach leading to the concept of *adult* career development. Their central ideas are:

1. Individuals develop more clearly defined self-concepts as they grow older. These vary to conform with the changes of one's view of reality as correlated with aging.
2. People develop images of the occupational world that they compare with their self-image in trying to make career decisions.
3. The adequacy of the eventual career decision is based on the similarity between an individual's self-concept and the vocational concept of the career chosen.

Adult career development means helping people grow and change. One of the primary and most common vehicles for helping people grow and change is learning. In fact, career counseling itself is an *educative* function that teaches processes such as career decision making, self-representation, and job hunting. (Forney, 1981).

In one-to-one counseling, knowledge of adult development is important. Yet adult career development programs include more than just career counseling activities. Such elements as career planning workshops, stress management workshops, life planning workshops, preretirement workshops, supervisory and management training in career counseling, and other individual and group developmental activities are included in many programs (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983). These activities require competence in two major areas in which most career counselors lack education or training: (a) knowledge of adult learning theory, and (b) skill in the design of adult learning (training) programs.

Adult Learning Theory

Adults differ from children and adolescents in four major respects:

1. Adults' self-concept is one of being a self-directed human being rather than dependent on others.
2. Adults accumulate a reservoir of experience that becomes an increasingly rich resource for learning.
3. Adults' readiness to learn becomes oriented increasingly to the developmental tasks of their social roles.
4. Adults' time perspective changes from one of postponed application of knowledge to immediacy of application. Accordingly, their orientation toward learning shifts from one of subject-centeredness to one of performance-centeredness (Knowles, 1980).

The adult career developer needs to be aware of the theory of how adults learn (androgogy) and also how this theory is put into practice.

Design of Training (Adult Learning) Programs

Adult learning (androloggy) involves designing training programs that build in the implications of adult learning theory. There are numerous models for designing training in the literature. One general model is depicted in Figure 1. In designing any training program, the adult career developer must be aware of the organization's, institution's, or community's need for such a program. If the need relates to a specific job or task, performance standards may have to be developed. The needs of the individual learners who make up the potential audience for the program must be identified. Then learning objectives can be established, the curriculum developed, the instruction planned, and the training conducted.

Throughout this entire process, the implications for helping adults learn must be integrated into the curriculum to create a meaningful learning experience (Ingalls, 1973). For example it is important to:

1. set a climate for learning and develop a positive learning environment;
2. establish a structure for mutual planning and collaborate on learning objectives;
3. design the learning and provide ways for participants to be involved in the learning; and
4. evaluate the learning and identify methods for participants to evaluate their own learning.

This is only a brief view of adult learning theory and practice. Much more goes into the art of helping adults learn. What is important to realize is that designing and conducting an effective workshop takes more than desire. It also takes competence in the areas mentioned.

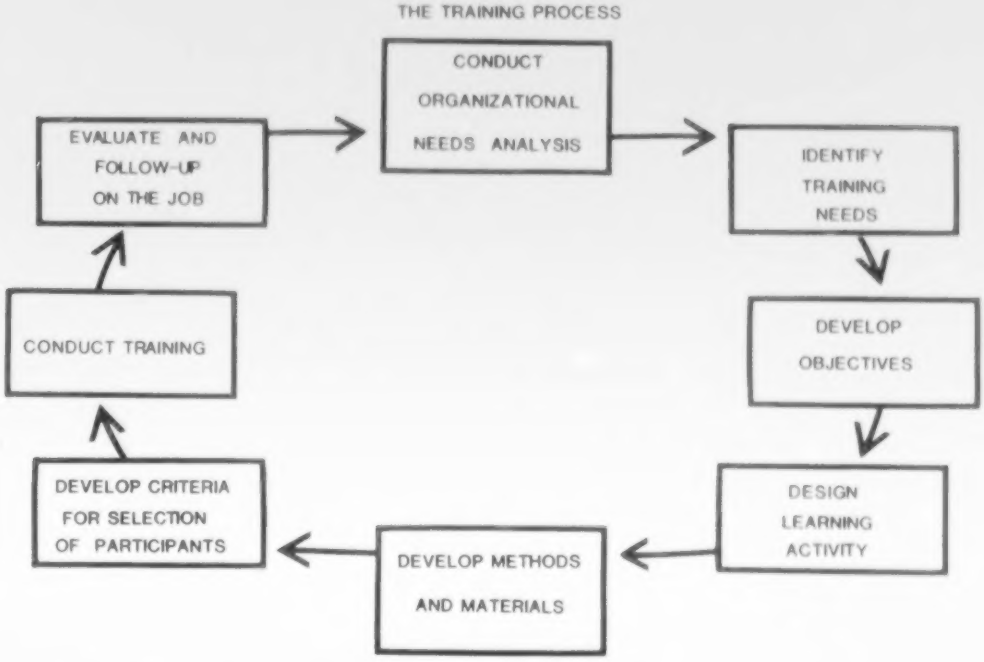
ISSUES RELATED TO DEVELOPING EDUCATION AND TRAINING PROGRAMS IN ACD

The prerequisite roles and competencies of adult career development specialists have been recently addressed in two major professional society publications: *Developing Training Competencies for Career Guidance Personnel*, published by NVGA (Phillips-Jones, Jones, & Drier, 1981) and *Training and Development Competencies*, published by ASTD (McLagan, 1983). The former document focuses on the competencies needed by career counselors working with any age level and provides many models (competency domains) for developing training programs. One model, developed by the Illinois Guidance and Personnel Association's (IGPA) Professional Development Program is presented in Figure 2.

This domain resulted from work by a task force of counselor educators and guidance practitioners from 17 institutions. The IGPA planning group brainstormed skills generic across human service areas. These skills were compared with those mentioned in the literature and then converted into competency statements. The nine competency areas that compose IGPA's domain are:

Figure 1

A General Model for Designing Training



1. counselor as person;
2. counseling services;
3. career development;
4. human environmental assessment;
5. consultation;
6. coordination;
7. research and evaluation;
8. referral; and
9. change agentry.

This group also added three levels of mastery: (a) beginning counselor, (b) professional counselor, and (c) consultant/supervisor/instructor. The competency statements in Figure 2 are called Goal Statements and Objectives.

The ASTD document identifies 31 competencies (see Table 1) important for excellent performance in the training and development field. Each competency is defined, and behaviors illustrate the levels of expertise. As with the NVGA competency model, three levels of expertise are identified: basic, intermediate, and advanced. An example of a competency and the illustrative behaviors follows:

> 7. Counseling Skill (competency) . . . Helping individuals recognize and understand needs, values, problems, alternatives, and goals.
> *BASIC:* The training and development specialist uses a career planning kit to help an individual seeking career assistance. *She empathizes with the employee's quandry.* Then, based on the data from interest questionnaires, *helps the employee explore* a variety of suitable new career directions.
> *INTERMEDIATE:* A participant in a leadership program is befuddled by survey feedback from people who assessed his leadership style before the program. The program facilitator notices him puzzling over his data and asks if she can help. She *listens to and acknowledges his concerns then helps him interpret* the results and decide on a course of action.
> *ADVANCED:* The training and development specialist has been asked to help an angry, shocked 50-year-old ex-executive who has just been fired. The specialist *gives him time to vent his feelings and concerns.* Then she *helps channel his energy* into self-assessment, opportunity search (McLagan, 1983).

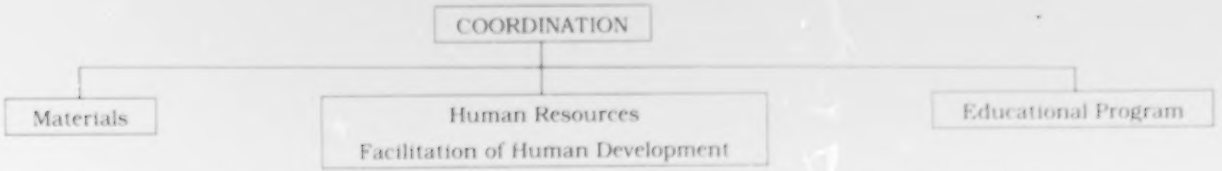
In the past, the most common settings for career development programs have been schools, academic institutions, and community agencies. Recently, the work place has emerged as an appropriate setting for the delivery of these services (Leibowitz & Schlossberg, 1981).

HRD as Career Development Base

Within the work place, the human resource development (HRD) function has emerged as the base for career development. The roles and functions within HRD have undergone major changes in recent years. At one time job skill training was the major purpose of HRD in many companies.

Figure 2

From Developing Training Competencies for Career Guidance Personnel (p. 34–35) *by L. Phillips-Jones, G.B. Jones, and H.N. Drier, 1981, Falls Church, VA: National Vocational Guidance Association. Copyright 1981 by National Vocational Guidance Association. Reprinted by permission.*



Goal Statement: The counselor must be able to coordinate the various aspects of the total counseling program resulting in a continuous and meaningful sequence of services to individuals, staff, and community.

Objectives	*Implementation and Evaluation*		
The professional counselor must:	The professional counselor provides evidence of competence by: **Level 1**	**Level 2**	**Level 3**
1. Be able to assess and respond to client needs.	Initiating an assessment of client needs.	Making recommendations based on an assessment of client needs. Implementing the above recommendations.	Demonstrating the ability to teach client needs assessment techniques.
2. Be able to analyze and respond to existing program needs.	Completing an analysis of existing programs.	Making recommendations based upon an assessment of program needs. Implementing the above recommendations.	Demonstrating ability to teach program development techniques.

3. **Be able to assess** available and potential resources.	**Completing an assessment of** available and potential resources.	**Making recommendations** based upon an assessment of available and potential resources. Implementing the above recommendations.	**Demonstrating the ability to** teach resource assessment and development.
4. Be able to define, detail, and communicate a recommended program by: a) writing specific program objectives; b) specifying activities that would facilitate reaching objectives.	Generating written program goals by: a) involving community institutions in identifying goals, objectives, and activities. b) writing specific objectives. c) initiating activities which meet program goals and objectives.	Demonstrating an understanding of existing institutional and community communication systems. Demonstrating the ability to coordinate local programs with systems beyond the local level. Demonstrating the ability to communicate program goals and objectives.	Conducting and reporting ongoing research activities. Demonstrating the ability to teach the writing of specific program goals.
5. Be able to attain program goals through cooperative or independent efforts.	Differentiating similarities and differences between programs. Initiating and/or maintaining cooperative relationships with existing community agencies. Selecting resources which will assist in attaining program goals.	Evaluating program goals with emphasis on recognition of similarities and differences between programs. Generating the means by which additional agencies and programs may support and enhance each other.	Suggesting means by which established cooperative ventures may be maintained. Generating means utilization of community resources in attaining program goals.
6. To establish a public relations program that explains human services to the community.	Identifying specific human services (who, what, where, when, how). Transmitting the who, what, where, when, and how of the community human services program.	Designing and producing materials that adequately inform the community of available human services.	Analyzing alternative means for disseminating human services information to various populations. Demonstrating the ability to teach techniques of information dissemination.

Table 1

Knowledge/Skill Areas Identified as Important for Excellent Performance in the Training and Development Field

1. *Adult Learning Understanding* . . . Knowing how adults acquire and use knowledge, skills, attitudes. Understanding individual differences in learning.
2. *A/V Skill* . . . Selecting and using audio/visual hardware and software.
3. *Career Development Knowledge* . . . Understanding the personal and organizational issues and practices relevant to individual careers.
4. *Competency Identification Skill* . . . Identifying the knowledge and skill requirements of jobs, tasks, roles.
5. *Computer Competence* . . . Understanding and being able to use computers.
6. *Cost-Benefit Analysis Skill* . . . Assessing alternatives in terms of their financial, psychological, and strategic advantages and disadvantages.
7. *Counseling Skill* . . . Helping individuals recognize and understand personal needs, values, problems, alternatives and goals.
8. *Data Reduction Skill* . . . Scanning, synthesizing, and drawing conclusions from data.
9. *Delegation Skill* . . . Assigning task responsibility and authority to others.
10. *Facilities Skill* . . . Planning and coordinating logistics in an efficient and cost-effective manner.
11. *Feedback Skill* . . . Communicating opinions, observations and conclusions such that they are understood.
12. *Futuring Skill* . . . Projecting trends and visualizing possible and probable futures and their implications.
13. *Group Process Skill* . . . Influencing groups to both accomplish tasks and fulfill the needs of their members.
14. *Industry Understanding* . . . Knowing the key concepts and variables that define an industry or sector (e.g., critical issues, economic vulnerabilities, measurements, distribution channels, inputs, outputs, information sources).
15. *Intellectual Versatility* . . . Recognizing, exploring and using a broad range of ideas and practices. Thinking logically and creatively without undue influence from personal biases.
16. *Library Skills* . . . Gathering information from printed and other recorded sources. Identifying and using information specialists and reference services and aids.
17. *Model Building Skill* . . . Developing theoretical and practical frameworks which describe complex ideas in understandable, usable ways.
18. *Negotiation Skill* . . . Securing win-win agreements while successfully representing a special interest in a decision situation.

19. *Objectives Preparation Skill* . . . Preparing clear statements which describe desired outputs.
20. *Organization Behavior Understanding* . . . Seeing organizations as dynamic, political, economic, and social systems which have multiple goals; using this larger perspective as a framework for understanding and influencing events and change.
21. *Organization Understanding* . . . Knowing the strategy, structure, power networks, financial position, systems of a SPECIFIC organization.
22. *Performance Observation Skills* . . . Tracking and describing behaviors and their effect.
23. *Personnel/HR Field Understanding* . . . Understanding issues and practices in other HR areas (Organization Development, Organization Job Design, Human Resource Planning, Selection and Staffing, Personnel Research and Information Systems, Compensation and Benefits, Employee Assistance, Union/Labor Relations).
24. *Presentation Skills* . . . Verbally presenting information such that the intended purpose is achieved.
25. *Questioning Skill* . . . Gathering information from and stimulating insight in individuals and groups through the use of interviews, questionnaires and other probing methods.
26. *Records Management Skill* . . . Storing data in easily retrievable form.
27. *Relationship Versatility* . . . Adjusting behavior in order to establish relationships across a broad range of people and groups.
28. *Research Skills* . . . Selecting, developing and using methodologies, statistical and data collection techniques for a formal inquiry.
29. *Training and Development Field Understanding* . . . Knowing the technological, social, economic, professional, and regulatory issues in the field; understanding the role T&D plays in helping individuals learn for current and future jobs.
30. *Training and Development Techniques Understanding* . . . Knowing the techniques and methods used in training; understanding their appropriate uses.
31. *Writing Skills* . . . Preparing written material which follows generally accepted rules of style and form, is appropriate for the audience, creative, and accomplishes its intended purposes.

Note. From *Training and Development Competencies* (p.36) by P.A. McLagan, 1983, Washington, DC: American Society for Training and Development. Copyright 1983 by ASTD. Reprinted by permission.

Later, the emphasis on management and executive programs added another dimension. Recently the emphasis on matching individual interests and goals with the skills needed and directions anticipated by organizations has created another role for HRD. This rapidly evolving role of liaison between the individual (who needs training and development to achieve personal goals) and the organization (which needs skilled, capable, and prepared employees to accomplish organizational goals) is an increasingly relevant focus of HRD (Gutteridge & Hutcheson, 1984).

With a career development-related HRD system, decision making about training and development for each employee is shared. The individual has the opportunity to express desired moves and goals. These may be expressed in terms of skills, knowledge, abilities, and desired target positions. The organization has the opportunity to react to those growth-related goals, provide feedback on their operational reality, and assist in identifying learning strategies to reach those goals supported by the organization. The individual's interests, goals, and desired growth strategies are usually formulated in a developmental plan. This developmental plan is an essential part of the information used in planning other HRD developmental activities.

This information sharing offers HRD the opportunity to be responsive to existing and future needs. Program offerings can be planned that are consistent with the perceived needs of employees and their supervisors. Training for the present job and education for a future job are seen as highly beneficial by both participants and supervisors because attendance is designed around both individual and organizational goals.

Because the developmental plan is outcome-based (focuses on the skill, knowledge, ability, or experience desired), it provides a microview of the individuals within an organization. Collectively, the developmental plans represent a macroview of the training and development needs within the organization.

In addition to developmental planning, other organizational career development techniques include:

- career planning seminars or workshops;
- career counseling by staff counselors;
- job posting;
- career workbooks;
- skills inventory;
- career pathing;
- succession planning;
- career discussions by supervisors with employees;
- career resource center; and
- outplacement counseling (Gutteridge & Otte, 1983).

Ideally, career development would be part of or allied with human resource development. Both would be essential elements of a comprehensive human resource management system.

Traditional graduate counseling programs have generally ignored the significance of organizational career development, the human resource perspective, and organizational theory. An understanding of HRD, internal (and external) consultation, group facilitation, organization and management theory, human resource planning, organization development, and human resource management are vital to adult career developers in organizations. "Organizations are able to grow, change, and adapt to an extent that is at least partially dependent on the ability of its human resources to grow, change, and adapt. Career development is a major means of preparing individual employees for this process." (Gutteridge & Hutcheson, 1984, pp. 30.24.)

Elements of a Graduate Degree Program in ACD

To this point the need to train individuals in ACD has been identified and discussed, the theoretical and conceptual foundations for ACD education have been reviewed, roles and competencies for this new profession have been identified, and career development programs within the HRD function in an organization have been discussed. Now the elements of a graduate degree program in ACD will be considered. This is being offered in an increasing number of universities, particularly in colleges of education. (American Society for Training and Development, 1981).

The following courses, seminars, or clinical experiences are common to most programs at the master's degree level:

Career Development Theory: This course reviews basic principles of human growth and development through the life span. The special emphasis is on career development and career development theory. Also considered are the social, economic, political, family, and educational influences on an individual.

Counseling Techniques: The emphasis in this course is on basic counseling techniques for working with adults in the work setting. Extensive practice of counseling skills through role-playing, behavior rehearsal, and audio- and videotaping is included.

Measurement and Assessment: This course emphasizes various group tests and nontest approaches (i.e., inventories and surveys) to help the counselor understand the adult in the work place. Some emphasis is also placed on individual measurement.

Adult Learning and Development: The knowledge of adult human development is generally a core element of a graduate program in adult counseling. But an emphasis on adult learning and its relation to human development is important both to career counseling and to designing career workshops for adults. Not only is career counseling a learning process but pursuing career change involves learning new knowledge, competencies, and values.

Training Program Design: As discussed earlier, designing training (adult learning) programs and integrating adult learning theory are important to the adult career developer planning to design and conduct career-oriented workshops, seminars, and computer-assisted instruction.

Consultation: Many career developers are consulting with institutions of higher learning, community agencies, businesses, and government. They assist in planning and implementing career development programs. In addition, career developers in organizations consult internally with management to help it understand how career development enhances organizational effectiveness.

Group Facilitation: Much of the counseling and learning in career development is performed in group settings. Knowledge of group dynamics and skill in group facilitation is essential for both group counseling and conducting a workshop.

Organization Theory: A support field or cognate in a mixture of organization behavior, human resource management, organization design, human resource planning, organization development, and human re-

source development that will provide the "world of work" perspective for those interested in organization-based career development.

Internship/Practicum: Students should have a chance to work in the field to see adult career development in practice within an organizational setting.

Throughout the graduate program, emphasis should be given to such activities as guest speakers, field trips, and informational interviews. This will expose students to the real world of adult career development. In addition, the faculty advisor's role should be one of educational and career counselor to fully prepare the students for their career choice in this field.

CONCLUSION

Counselor education programs and human resource development programs are well equipped to train professionals for human resource positions in business and industry. To be successful, a close working relationship needs to be established between the departments or colleges that offer the coursework and the practitioners in business and industry where internship and practicum experience are offered. Only then will the graduates of these programs be well-rounded professionals who will contribute uniquely to human resource development in organizational settings.

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SECTION VI:

EVALUATION

ESTABLISHING OUR EFFECTIVENESS AND ACCOUNTABILITY . . .

CHAPTER 21

Evaluation: Measuring Effectiveness of Adult Career Development Practice

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Recently one of the authors of this chapter completed a monograph called *Providing Adult Career Guidance and Counseling: Ideas for Application and Action* (Bhaerman, 1984). Although the monograph was comprehensive, the issue of evaluation was not included, for there seemed to be little information available on this topic. Following a thorough literature search of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) data base and the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult, Career, and Vocational Education, a number of relevant materials were uncovered. There was certainly a sufficient amount of information to make several observations and to draw some pertinent conclusions. This has been done in the latter part of this chapter.

First, it is important to raise several introductory questions and to offer several initial observations. It is difficult to make many sweeping generalizations about evaluating adult career development practices. Many factors and dimensions must be considered, and an extremely large number of evaluation models and approaches are available.

GENERAL QUESTIONS TO CONSIDER

Let us take a brief look at four general questions before turning to the specifics of adult career development. The first two that come to mind are: (a) What *theory(ies)* is the basis for career development program activities? (b) Which *strategies and interventions* are the focus? Once the operational dimensions are clear, the "tough questions" arise: (c) Which of the many models should be the base-factor evaluation? (d) Which of the many *specific types of evaluation* should be the focus?

CAREER DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

A variety of theories dealing with diverse aspects of career development have been formulated. Various career development experts (i.e., Giroux, 1983; Peavy, 1981; Schlossberg, 1981, & Tolbert, 1980) have attempted to synthesize the theories. Two works will be discussed briefly: Giroux's overview and Peavy's analysis of several major theories and their implications for adult career counselors.

Giroux's Overview

As indicated, Giroux reviewed a number of career development theories. For example, the *trait and factor* theory is based on the premise that individuals have unique traits that can be measured objectively and be related to the requirements of various jobs. *Ginzberg's developmental theory* probes the stages in the occupational choice process, whereas *Roe's needs theory* deals with career choices and fulfilling personal needs. *Super's developmental theory* posits various stages such as growth, exploratory, establishment, maintenance, and decline. *Holland's personality theory* describes career choice as an extension of one's personality to a work setting and one's identification with occupational stereotypes. *Tiedeman's cognitive developmental theory* also notes stages: anticipation—exploration, crystallization, choice, and clarification, *and* implementation—induction, reformation, and integration. *Gelatt's decision-making theory* is based on the view that one has options from which to choose. *Psychoanalytical theories* often stress occupational choice and employment as a means of satisfying impulses and providing outlets for subliminal wishes. Lastly, *social factors theories* imply that one's social group and environment exert a significant influence.

Peavy's Summarization

Peavy, as noted, also summarized several major adult development theories and research findings. A brief overview follows.

Havighurst constructed a stage theory of development that includes a set of tasks that must be completed at each stage for the individual to experience life satisfaction. Here the counselor's job would be to assist clients in coping with those tasks appropriate to their time of life.

Erikson proposed an eight-stage life cycle. Each is characterized by a critical issue that is either resolved or not. A counselor guided by this theory would search for ways to help clients deal with the particular issues they face. For example, if a client were undergoing a crisis in starting and maintaining a productive career, the counselor would explore whether or not previous tasks had been accomplished. Intervention would be started initially at one level (learning to relate effectively) rather than at the "try-a-new-job" level.

Kohlberg focused on moral development and stages of moral judgment based on the understanding of the correct way to behave in society. Hence, a counselor would concentrate on the values, motives, and meanings that clients attribute to their own and others' behavior. Clients would be confronted with moral dilemmas and inconsistencies in their

own beliefs and behaviors. This process might lead them to evaluate their own situation.

Loevinger's theory of development, organized around levels of "ego control," included such areas as interpersonal relations and moral judgments. For example, a client oriented to conforming might be confused by too many options, whereas a more autonomous person may demand various options. Recognizing how a client thinks and acts in a situation is very useful.

Levinson emphasized the concept of choice and suggested that counselors discover the meaning that a choice holds in a person's life at different times. For example, greater thought should be given to the meaning of work in the middle-adult years and how this meaning differs from the meaning of work in early adulthood.

Lastly, *Neugarten* argued that unexpected life events, rather than the predictable ones, move an individual into crisis behaviors. Two important research implications are: (a) clients should be helped to identify their sources of support in the face of predictable difficulties, and (b) people will demonstrate more drastic reactions to unexpected events of change. Hence, they may then need stronger guidance and emotional support than in the face of predictable events.

Our point in summarizing these theories is to show that there is no single uniform way of looking at adults. Each theory suggests different programs, practices, and services. Therefore, the context of evaluation programs will differ greatly. It is extremely important to identify and make explicit the theory(ies) under which one operates to provide the necessary road map to guide the evaluation process.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT STRATEGIES

An almost endless array of strategies and interventions exist. Here is a brief sampling of some of the strategies that could be used and evaluated either singly or jointly. Not all of the 40 items listed will be relevant. It will depend, of course, on the nature of the agency and the agency's clients.

- job search approaches;
- media—radio and TV—approaches;
- outplacement counseling approaches;
- a career resource bank/center;
- a job development program;
- an occupational retraining program;
- a referral system;
- a telephone counseling service;
- computer-assisted programs;
- correspondence courses;
- home study courses;
- job-finding training;
- family counseling;
- assertiveness training;
- support systems;
- consciousness-raising activities;

- employability skills training;
- follow-up services;
- information on education/training programs;
- information on job opportunities;
- information on credentials
- information on transferable skills;
- placement services;
- training in coping and adaptive skills;
- child care services;
- classes in communication/language facility;
- financial counseling services;
- formal instructional classes;
- outreach programs;
- peer support groups;
- remedial education programs;
- seminars and workshops;
- transportation services;
- peer counselor and volunteer training;
- professional staff training;
- peer counselors;
- self-help; self-instructional materials;
- volunteers;
- a comprehensive, formal guidance system; and
- testing or other means to gather client information.

EVALUATION MODELS

In recent years, there has been a proliferation of evaluation models prescribing what evaluators ought to do. According to Patton (1982), no definitive classification scheme exists that describes the various models. Nevertheless, he does identify eight separate models distinguishable by: (a) the audiences they address, (b) the outcomes they examine, (c) the typical questions they ask, and (d) the methods they employ. House's eight categories (Patton, p. 37) follow:

- *Systems analysis* quantitatively measures program inputs and outcomes for effectiveness and efficiency.
- *Behavioral objectives approach* focuses entirely on clear, specific, and measurable goals.
- *Goal-free evaluation* examines the extent that actual client needs are being met by the program.
- *Art criticism approach* makes the evaluator's own expertise (derived standards of excellence) a criterion against which programs are judged.
- *Accreditation model* uses a team of external accreditors to determine the extent to which a program meets professional standards for a given type of program.
- *Adversary approach* uses two teams to battle over the question of whether a program should be continued.
- *Transaction approach* concentrates on program processes.
- *Decision-making models* structure the evaluation by the decisions to be made.

An earlier and even more extensive analysis of evaluation models is reported by Worthen and Sanders (1973, pp. 209–217). They compared eight evaluation process theories: definitions, purposes, key emphasis, roles of the evaluator, types of evaluation, theoretical constructs, and implications for evaluation design. The theories compared have been developed by Marvin Alkin, Robert Hammond, Malcolm Provus, Michael Scriven, Robert Stake, Danile Stufflebeam, and Ralph Tyler. A brief description of the relevant characteristics of the models mentioned follows.

Alkin's model is based on ascertaining the decision areas of concern, selecting appropriate information, and collecting and analyzing that information. The major purpose is to report summary data to decision makers. The key emphasis is on evaluation reports used for decision making. The evaluator serves as a specialist providing evaluation information to decision makers. The implication for evaluation design is that the evaluation domain is determined by the decision maker, and the objects of the evaluation vary along a continuum from discrete, definable objects to complex systems.

Hammond's model is based on assessing the effectiveness of current and innovative programs at the local level by comparing behavioral data with the objectives. The purpose is to find out whether innovation is effective in achieving the expressed objectives. The key emphasis is on local program development. The evaluators serve as consultants who provide expertise in data collection and training of local evaluators or program personnel. Evaluation is the source on which to base decisions about institutional and behavioral dimensions. The implication for evaluation design is that the focus be on empirical research and on the interaction of the various dimensions.

Provus's model is based on comparing performance with standards. The purpose is to determine whether to improve, maintain, or terminate a program. The key emphasis is on identifying discrepancies between standards and performance by using a team approach. The evaluator serves as a team member who aids program improvement independently of the program unit. The evaluation staff collects information essential to program improvement and notes discrepancies between performance and standards. The implication for evaluation is that the design should provide continuous evaluation ("feedback loops"), relevant and timely information for making decisions and cost-benefit analysis.

Scriven's model is based on gathering and combining data with a weighted set of goal scales. The purpose is to establish and justify merit or worth. The key emphasis is on the justification of data gathering instruments, weighting, and selection of goals. The evaluator is responsible for judging the merit of a practice for producers (formative evaluation) and consumers (summative evaluation). The implication for evaluation design is that the model looks at goals and their worth, determines whether they are being met, is involved in value judgments, requires the use of scientific information, and evaluates from within (again, formative) and from without (again, summative).

Stake's model is based on describing and judging a program, usually an educational program. The purpose is to describe and judge such programs based on a formal inquiry process. The key emphasis is on col-

lecting descriptive and judgmental data from various audiences. The evaluator serves as a specialist concerned with collecting, processing, and interpreting such data. These data normally result in generating reports that include recommendations to various audiences. Judgments may be based on either absolute or relative standards. The implication for evaluation is that the design is a very general structure, although it has been recommended that matrices be included in the design.

Stufflebeam's model is based on defining, obtaining, and using information for decision making. The purpose and key emphasis is to provide relevant information to decision makers and evaluation reports for decision making. The evaluator serves as a specialist who provides information to decision makers. Four specific approaches to evaluation are suggested: context evaluation for planning decisions, input evaluation for programming decisions, process evaluation for implementing decisions, and product evaluation for recycling decisions. The implication for evaluation design is that the model calls for the use of the systems approach for evaluation studies.

Tyler's model is based on comparing performance (usually student performance) with behaviorally stated objectives. Because the approach focuses on learning, the purpose is to determine the extent to which the purposes of a learning activity are acutally being realized. The key emphasis is on the specification of objectives and the measuring of learning outcomes. The evaluator serves as a specialist who evaluates as part of "curriculum development and assessment." The implication for evaluation design is that the model focuses on the need to interpret and use the results of assessment.

TYPES OF EVALUATION

The differing evaluation models reveal varying approaches to evaluation practice. Cutting across the various definitions and models are different *types of evaluation*. Whereas the models are basically prescriptive, indicating how to conduct evaluations, the various types of evaluations are more descriptive. Different types of evaluations ask different questions and focus on specific aspects of the evaluative function. For example, Raizen and Rossi (1981) reported on the work of a committee of the National Academy of Sciences that has delineated these types of evaluation: needs assessment, basic research, small-scale testing, field evaluation, policy analyses, fiscal accountability, coverage accountability, impact assessment, and economic analyses.

Within the context of the models just described, Worthen and Sanders (1973) also identified numerous types of evaluation. For example they cite: (a) Alkin's model (system assessment, program planning, program implementation, program improvement, and program certification); (b) Hammond's model (behavioral dimension used for describing programs); (c) Provus's model (design, installation, process, product, and cost); (d) Scriven's model (formative/summative, comparative/noncomparative); (e) Stake's model (formal versus informal); (f) Stufflebeam's model (context, input, process, and product); and (g) Tyler's model (pre- and postmeasurement of performance).

Patton (1982, p. 44) also cited several types of evaluation identified in 1980 by the Evaluation Research Society Standards Committee:

- *Front-end analysis* (preinstallation, feasibility analysis). This type takes place prior to installation of a program to provide guidance in planning and implementing the program as well as deciding if it should be implemented.
- *Evaluability assessment*. This type includes activities aimed at assessing the feasibility of various evaluation approaches and methods.
- *Formative evaluation* (developmental, process). This evaluation is aimed at providing information for program improvement, modification, and management.
- *Impact evaluation* (summative, outcome). This evaluation is aimed at determining program results and effects. It is used especially for making major decisions about program continuation, expansion, reduction, and funding.
- *Program monitoring*. The activities vary from periodic checks of compliance with policy to relatively straightforward "tracking" of services delivered and "counting" of clients.

Patton stressed that these types of evaluation are by no means mutually exclusive. Over a period of time a program might be involved in activities from each of the categories. He also pointed out that: (a) some activities occur simultaneously, (e.g., program monitoring, formative evaluation, and impact analysis); and (b) numerous types of specific evaluations exist within each category.

From Patton's (1982) extensive list (pp. 45–47), a few selected evaluation types that adult career development personnel might wish to explore are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Selected Evaluation Types

- *Accreditation* (Does the program meet minimum standards for accreditation or licensing?)
- *Appropriateness* (What services should clients be receiving? To what extent are current services appropriate to client needs?)
- *Awareness focus* (Who knows about the program? What do they know?)
- *Cost-benefit analysis* (What is the relationship between program costs and program outcomes expressed in dollars?)
- *Cost-effectiveness* (What is the relationship between program costs and outcomes where the latter are not measured in dollars?)
- *Descriptive* (What happens in the program?)
- *Effectiveness* (To what extent is the program effective in attaining its goals?)
- *Efficiency* (Can inputs be reduced and still obtain the same level of output or can greater output be obtained with no increase in inputs?)

- *Effort* (What are the inputs into the program in terms of number of personnel, staff/client ratios, and other descriptors of levels of activity and effort in the program?)
- *Extensiveness* (How does the present level of services compare to the needed level of services?)
- *Goal attainment scaling* (To what extent do individual clients attain individual goals on a standardized measurement scale?)
- *Goals-based* (To what extent have program goals been attained?)
- *Goal-free* (What are the actual effects of the program on clients—without regard to what staff say they want to accomplish?)
- *Impact* (What are the direct and indirect program effects on the larger community of which it is a part?)
- *Longitudinal* (What happens to the program and to participants over time?)
- *Outcomes* (To what extent are desired client outcomes being attained? What are the effects of the program on clients?)
- *Performance* (What are participants actually able to do as a result of participation in the program?)
- *Personnel* (How effective are staff in carrying out their assigned tasks and in accomplishing their individual goals?)
- *Process* (What are the strengths and weaknesses of day-to-day operations?)
- *Product* (What are the characteristics of specific and concrete products produced by or used in a program?)
- *Quality assurance* (Are minimum and accepted standards of care being routinely and systematically provided to clients?)
- *Systems analysis* (What are the available alternatives and, given those alternatives, what is the optimum way to do this program?)

Note. From M.Q. Patton, *Practical Evaluation*, pp. 45–47. Copyright © 1982 by Sage Publications, Inc. Reprinted by permission.

EVALUATION OF ADULT CAREER PROGRAMS

With these four background questions addressed, the *evaluation of the effectiveness of adult career development programs* will be examined. The examination will review evaluation studies, illustrate an evaluation design, describe program and client outcomes, and raise related issues.

Evaluation Studies

Evaluation studies of adult career programs are infrequent. Harrison and Entine (1976) reviewed a national survey of 367 adult career counseling programs. They found that only 20% provided evaluation data that measured specific changes in client behavior as a result of the program. An additional one-third of the programs reported that they collected anecdotal reports of client reactions and success.

Walz and Benjamin (1981) in their review of adult counseling programs also found serious deficits in assessing program effectiveness. In general,

they observed that systematic efforts to collect evaluative data were rare. They did not find a single program that used criterion-referenced measures to assess client change in actual attitudes, skills, or knowledge. Walz and Benjamin did note, however, that program staff were convinced that they were successful in helping their clients. This was based on subjective feedback in the absence of hard data. Unfortunately, subjective impressions of effectiveness do not convince budget allocators.

Stump (1982) observed a similar deficit in the evaluation of adult career development programs. He cites a number of reasons as to why professionals avoid evaluating their programs. These include: lack of time and energy, insufficient budget, task difficulty, low response rates, political program decisions, data considered unimportant, disinterest, and inadequate knowledge to evaluate process.

In addition, Cairo (1983) reviewed 30 studies on vocational counseling in industry. He also reported limited information on counseling effectiveness.

An Illustrative Model

There are five basic phases to program evaluation: (1) purpose, (2) data collection design, (3) analysis of the data, (4) reporting the findings, and (5) acting on the findings, decisions, and actions. A description of each phase follows:

Phase 1: Purpose. The first phase is the most critical because it sets the stage for the four subsequent phases. The purpose of the evaluation needs to be clearly stated and related questions need to be carefully addressed (i.e., Who needs the data? What information is needed? How soon is it needed? and, Why do they need the information?).

For example, a community college has invested $100,000 in a computerized career information system. The career center director is asking for an additional $20,000 to expand the system. The president of the college wants to know if this is a worthwhile investment. Clearly, the president wants evidence that the system has been effective and how the additional $20,000 will make it more effective.

A second example represents a different level of purpose. A program has been teaching job search techniques, but the results are unsatisfactory. The purpose is to conduct a careful evaluation of the job search techniques. This should include evaluating techniques being used, teaching effectiveness, client utilization, and impediments and problems interfering with successful implementation.

Phase 2: Data collection design. Although phase 1 provides direction for the evaluation and the information needed, it does not include methods of obtaining this information. We need a data collection design responsive to such fundamental questions as: How do we obtain the data? When will it be obtained? Who will collect the data? Who will provide the data (respondents)? How long will it take to get it? How much will it cost?

Table 2 on program evaluation data provides a general framework for considering of these questions. According to Leibowitz and Schlossberg

(1981) evaluation data consist of three types: (a) reaction, (b) learning, and (c) behavioral and organizational change. The first type, reaction data, is process-oriented; data are obtained about the soundness of the procedures used for program activities. These are usually subjective reactions from clients. For example, was the job search technique clearly communicated? Were the sample materials easy to read?

The other two types of evaluation data are outcome data, assessing the effects of the program on the client and the organization. This includes acquisition of new skills, improved morale, number of job placements, reduced turnover, and job satisfaction. The second type, learning data, is an objective assessment of client learning from an activity. Often standardized tests or other objective techniques are used to measure these results. The third type, behavioral and organizational change data, is again, objective evidence of outcome after a specified period of time. The data represent long-term changes or results.

Phase 3: Analysis of the data. The analysis should be organized to answer the original questions in the purpose phase. The answers (findings) should be organized systematically so that the reader can clearly see the relationships between the data and the original questions. For example, in the previous illustration of assessing the clients' reactions to learning and using job search techniques, it might be found that these are not working for various reasons. Possibly some clients cannot read help-wanted ads. Maybe there are not enough telephones to respond to the job openings. It could be that some clients fear job rejections. Also, some may not be receiving job messages due to a breakdown in the communication system.

Phase 4: Reporting the findings. How should the evaluation data be reported? Optimal media techniques should be used to communicate the findings. Yet perhaps more important is that optional recommendations be given where appropriate for subsequent decisions and activities. For example, for job search techniques it might be recommended that: (a) additional telephones be installed for a specified cost, (b) volunteers be used to help record job messages, and (c) telephone schedules be developed to distribute the calls.

Phase 5: Acting on the findings (decisions and actions). The best way to lose staff enthusiasm for conducting evaluations is for staff to discover that no action was taken as a result of the evaluation and that it was a total waste of time, energy, and dollars. Unfortunately this often occurs. Consequently it is essential that this phase is carefully planned and implemented. Will the right people read the evaluation (those in authority to make decisions)? Are the actions feasible? Was adequate information provided for decisions?

Client and Program Outcomes

In assessing the effects of a career development program, often there is ambiguity as to what specific outcomes should be assessed. To provide some direction for the range of outcomes that could be assessed, it is

Table 2

Program Evaluation Data

Data Category	*What to Collect*	*How to Collect*	*When to Collect*
Reaction	Subjective judgments about the effectiveness of techniques, methods, and materials *Examples:* Was the method clearly presented? Was it helpful? Was it easy to learn? Did it take too long? Were the materials up to date?	Questionnaires, interviews	Immediately after program
Learning	Objective evidence of learning *Examples:* Knowledge of career exploration sources Acquisition of job search techniques Knowledge of how to apply for training	Goal attainment scaling tests questionnaires behavior samples simulations interviews	Immediately after program

Behavioral and organizational change	Objective evidence of the long-term results of the program *Examples:* Job placement Morale Attitudes Productivity indices Career satisfaction Employee turnover	After a specified period of time

Note. From "Designing Career Development Programs in Organizations: A Systems Approach" (p. 285) by Z. Leibowitz and N. Schlossberg. In D. H. Montross and C. J. Shinkman (Eds.), *Career Development in the 1980s: Theory and Practice*, 1981, Springfield, IL: Charles C Thomas. Copyright 1981 by Charles C Thomas, Publishers. Adapted by courtesy of Charles C Thomas, Publishers, Springfield, Illinois.

suggested that these be classified into two groups: (a) client outcomes, and (b) program outcomes. Client outcomes represent fairly specific client behaviors that result from counseling and usually reflect client goals. Fretz (1981) classified these as follows:

Career Knowledge and Skills

- accuracy of self-knowledge;
- accuracy of occupational information;
- accuracy of job-seeking skills knowledge;
- planning and goal selection skills;
- appropriateness of choices (realism); and
- range of choices.

Career behavior

- career information seeking;
- relevant academic performance;
- seeking initial/new job;
- getting initial/new job;
- job ratings;
- being promoted; and
- earnings.

Sentiments

- attitudes toward choices: certainty, satisfaction, commitment, career salience;
- job satisfaction;
- quality-of-life ratings;
- satisfaction with intervention; and
- perceived effectiveness of intervention.

Effective role functioning

- self-concept adequacy;
- personal adjustment;
- relapses of career problems; and
- contributions to community.

Program outcomes represent broader programmatic goals and reflect the overall operations of the program. They also encompass client outcomes in that they represent an index of the total effectiveness of the program. According to Braskamp (1979) these might include:

- the program's outreach, visibility, and liaison with other services and agencies within the community;
- the quality, recentness, and appropriateness of resource materials, facilities, and equipment;
- the management of the services;
- the quality and competencies of program staff;
- the program's image;
- the range of services provided; and
- program budget.

Related Issues

As we look at the status of evaluating the effectiveness of adult career development programs, at least four issues need to be addressed: measurement, methodology, outcomes, and stimulation of more evaluation.

Measurement. Although a vast array of aptitude, ability, and interest measurement techniques are available to facilitate career development, measurement of client outcomes is very limited (Kapes & Mastie, 1982). Standardized tests to assess client outcomes are pretty much limited to vocational maturity, decision-making behavior, and attitude change. Many of the outcomes that need to be assessed are amenable to behavioral sampling and observations (i.e., demonstration of use of career planning and job search skills, supervisory ratings of job adjustment, morale, and productivity). It would be helpful for future evaluations if assessment experts could devise alternative approaches for measuring client outcomes. Perhaps a manual could be developed describing how various outcomes could be assessed.

Methodology. In their review of numerous vocational intervention studies, Spokane and Oliver (1983) identified various methodological weaknesses that reduce internal and external validity. They devised a "suggestions" checklist to improve vocational intervention evaluation. The checklist covers four areas: design and analysis, criteria, instrumentation, and reporting. Those who want to improve the quality of assessing program effectiveness could profit from reviewing their checklist before designing evaluation studies.

Vocational outcomes. These need to be more explictly defined for each client. It is a mistake to assume that all clients of a group treatment expect the same treatment outcomes. With that assumption, outcome criteria would be the same for all clients and chances for demonstrating differential effectiveness would be reduced. For example, client outcome expectancies for a career planning group may vary from simply confirming a career decision to expanding career options or narrowing choices. It would be inappropriate to use the same outcome criteria for all members of a group. This would suggest, as Spokane and Oliver (1983) recommend, that clients need to be diagnosed more carefully to identify their counseling goals to be used as outcome criteria. Goal attainment scaling is useful as an individualized approach to setting and measuring specific client outcomes.

Stimulating more effective evaluation. This is not easy to do in view of some of the constraints mentioned earlier. It is hoped that the many models outlined earlier, however, will help increase the thinking about the possibility of conducting an evaluation. Half of the battle is getting started. Start on a small scale by asking basic questions (i.e., Who wants the information? What information is needed? How can it be obtained?). These questions eventually can be refined into a more sophisticated scheme and can be used to stimulate program staff to become involved in evaluation.

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SECTION VII:

FUTURE TRENDS

ANTICIPATING THE FUTURE . . .

CHAPTER 22

Future Trends in Adult Career Development

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Looking into the future is a risky action. The history of economic and labor-market forecasting has demonstrated this time and again. Political forecasting is equally, if not more, perilous. Predicting what will happen in a field that is partly dependent on economic and political developments involves dealing with compound unreliability. Perhaps this is why senior members of the counseling profession are typically those who are asked to produce chapters or lectures with titles such as this. If they err, their reputations have already been made or broken; whereas a young professional building a career might do more damage to a budding reputation!

Be that as it may, there are some things we know about the present that provide a basis for looking ahead. These things range from changes that have taken place in the birthrate and in longevity to developments in the technology and art of counseling.

SOCIOECONOMIC TRENDS

Our Aging Population

It is well known that our population is getting steadily older. Older in the sense that the middle-aged and elderly were born when the birthrate was higher than it is now, so our elders constitute a relatively greater proportion of the population. Older, too, in the sense that nutrition and health care have improved. So over the years more people live longer. Life expectancy at age 65 and 70 is greater than it used to be. Most people who live to be that old can expect to live well into their 70s and many even into their 80s. Then too, they can expect to be moderately active during most of those years.

The aging of our population has affected age groups other than the elderly. Proportional changes make for changes in other age ranges. The middle-aged of today (now in their late 30s and early 40s) are the product of the baby boom of the end of World War II. The bulge at that level means increased competition for the better jobs at a time when the next vintage is smaller. Also it will remain smaller for some years until the baby-boom

adults produce children in numbers proportioned to their own early years, if indeed they do, in this age of contraception. As the large population of elders retires there should be more room at the top for the current 40-year-olds. However, with the raising of the mandatory retirement age and the well-documented preference of the abler members of the work force to keep active in a more focused way, the competition for the more rewarding jobs may remain strong. That the next generation of college students should be larger than the present does suggest a large body of consumers of education and of goods and services in 10 or 15 years. But predicting occupational trends that far in advance has so far proved to be a risky business.

The Employment of Women, Ethnic Minorities, and the Handicapped

Progress was made in opening up the labor market, particularly the higher-level managerial and professional jobs, to women and ethnic minorities following World War II. Now there seems to be a period of weakening of equal opportunity; progress is rarely a linear process. It may be that we are on a plateau in the opening up of employment opportunities. It is difficult for people who have seen progress to accept a slowing of the pace.

That the traditionally male and white occupations will continue to become sex- and color- and national-origins-blind seems most likely. Women have been proving themselves in "men's work." Blacks and Hispanics have found increasing opportunities. With reverse discrimination these groups have been able to command higher salaries than their white colleagues in some traditionally white settings. These are the exceptions, but they help to tell a story of social policy and practice that should lead, in due course, to pay according to level and level according to ability.

A part of these developments is the opening up of traditionally female occupations to men as in the health professions. This trend may help to raise the pay levels in those jobs. It would be interesting to have data on possible changes in the willingness of whites to take traditionally black jobs, but that trend is unlikely because of the low pay prevailing in those fields. But, if women and blacks are taking over some of the higher-level jobs that men once held, some white males must be directly or indirectly displaced. If displaced, they must either find or make new jobs at their own levels or move down the ladder. A general bumping process could result. Observation suggests that this may be taking place in the airline and construction industries.

In the long run the year 2001 seems likely to hold more equality of career opportunity than there is now. Certainly career development and counseling programs have become much less sex- and color-biased. The materials for such work are freer of the old biases. There is a tendency to question the old barriers and to look for ways of helping people overcome them. Whereas the question used to be: "What can this counselee do, given his or her social handicap?" The question now is: "How can this person maximize his or her opportunities for self-development and career self-actualization?" What has been written here of sex and eth-

nicity can also be written of physical and mental handicaps. The focus now is on potential and on ways of maximizing it.

The Third World and the Aging West

The last 40 years have seen the emergence of the Third World. The former colonies have attempted to catch up with the Western World economically, and therefore educationally, with inevitable social consequences. Instead of exporting raw materials and importing manufactured goods, the Third World nations have pressed for their own manufacturing potential. Many of them today exhibit the same type of exploitation of the environment and their workers that once was rampant and is still seen at times in the West. With the acquisition of manufacturing facilities and their lower standards of living, many of these new countries have been able to produce more cheaply and to take over important segments of the older Western countries' markets. In the United States, this has had great impact on the electronics, automotive, and textile industries, to name just three. Great Britain, France, and Germany have had the same experience. The end is not in sight.

There will, no doubt, be major efforts in countries like the United States to find ways of countering the decline of opportunity in those major industries employing thousands of people. Protectionism seems not to be a promising way of doing this, for in closing our own markets, others close theirs to us. Even if the policy could be made to work, it would be one of preserving the archaic and obsolescent, one of retrogression rather than progress. If we follow the current example of Japan, or the recent one of West Germany, we will concentrate on finding new products, new ways of production, and new markets. We will, in other words, create new occupations and new job opportunities to replace the old. In a later section on innovation, these possibilities will be considered along with what they mean for career development and counseling.

A LIFE-SPAN PERSPECTIVE

One of the encouraging trends of the past 2 decades has been a recognition, among career development specialists and, rather belatedly, among developmental psychologists, of the importance of a life-span perspective, and with it of a life-space perspective (Super, 1980, 1983). Knowledge of what each age cohort has faced and of how it has coped can help in the understanding of what new cohorts may face as they move into the next life stage. Socioeconomic changes make it impossible to predict the same conditions for the rising generation. However, ongoing change in conditions can suggest possible changes in developmental processes and outcomes. In career development it is important to know the typical developmental tasks of a given life stage, general coping strategies and outcomes, changes in life-career roles with age and experience, past and present socioeconomic changes' effect on careers, and the handling of transitions that accompany personal and social change.

There is no need, here, to recapitulate life-stage theory as applied to careers, for it is now part of the common knowledge of counselors and

psychologists (Brown & Brooks, 1984; Montross & Shinkman, 1981; Watts, Super, & Kidd, 1981). But the concepts of life stages and life space provide a good framework for what follows. Figure 1 is a widely used graphic representation of the scheme.

The First Transition: From School to Work

The transition from school to work is actually an adolescent rather than an adult transition. Full adulthood cannot be said to be reached until sometime in the middle or late 20s. The title "young adult" is in fact a courtesy title, reminiscent of some Central European countries in which even a 12-year-old was not long ago addressed as either "Sir Knight" or "Sir Youth." But, as a transition to adulthood, it needs consideration here.

The first years after leaving school or college, whether at age 16, 18, 21, or 25, are years of exploration. Although the youth may, in a program of business, trade, or professional training, have had considerable exposure to an occupational field, the student status is generally one of isolation from the world of work (cooperative education programs are an exception). Educational institutions tend to be nurturing, whereas business and industry (even educational and social agencies when acting as employers), tend to be more competitive. Thus, engineers from the most selective engineering colleges are often viewed by employers as needing a great deal of on-the-job training. Teachers with graduate qualifications still often need help in classroom management. Applied psychologists moving from training to employment generally need an extended internship. Universities that produce the best researchers are generally accused of producing less useful new employees than those produced by institutions with a "nuts-and-bolts" tradition. Encountering new demands in a sink-or-swim situation, maturing youth find that they have to make both personal and occupational adjustments.

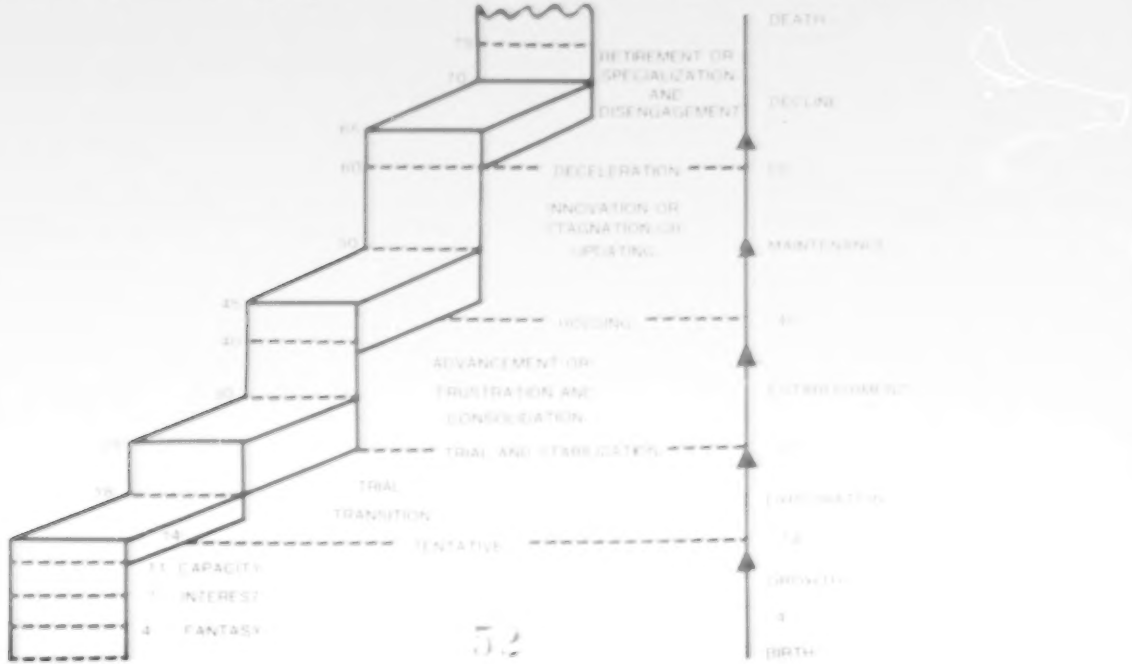
For this reason there is much floundering and trial even for those who have acquired some occupational training. Those who have had no training for any occupation—most academic and general high school graduates and most liberal arts college graduates—may do worse than that. They may drift into whatever job happens to be available. Thus, they stand in even more need of orientation to the world of work. Occupations and careers have not been part of their preparation for life.

Most of the subjects of the Career Pattern Study (CPS; Super, 1985) were found to have changed jobs or occupations during the first few years in the labor force. Only one-half of them were found to be stabilizing in an occupation when they were 25, and 37% were still exploring (i.e., drifting, floundering, or truly exploring) at age 36. One of the greatest challenges to guidance and counseling is to turn drifting and floundering into more systematic exploration. Then at age 25 or 35, fewer men and women will say, like many of the CPS young adults, "You know, I've been working for 7 years and I've gotten nowhere, no skills, no savings, no security—it's time I settled down."

In the early 20s movement to another job is relatively easy, particularly in a good labor market. Most young people do change jobs several times

Figure 1

Life Stages and Developmental Tasks. From "Career and Life Development (p. 192–234) *by Donald E. Super. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Ed.), Career Choice and Development*, 1984, *San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Copyright 1984 by Jossey-Bass. Reprinted by permission.*



before settling down, and many change occupations. It is for this reason that the conventional career pattern, typical of so many middle-class men and women, denotes a sequence of several job changes followed by settling down, by stabilizing, in the late 20s and early 30s. Even those with stable careers find this a transition period. The culture of the engineering school or university is different from that of the world of work in strictness of demands, penalties for not meeting demands, and the repetitiveness of daily routines.

Therefore the expectations are that, during the foreseeable future, more attention will be paid to turning drifting and floundering into more systematic exploration through ongoing evaluation and planning for the next steps. There will be more school and college courses like Guided Career Exploration (Super and Bowlsbey, 1979) that teach the concept of careers as life stages with changing vocational development tasks and self-understanding knowledge of the world of work and career planning and decision making. Computerized career development systems can be expected to progress beyond matching people and occupations and helping make occupational and educational choices to teaching the concepts of evolving careers with changes in both the person's situation and self.

The Second Transition: Settling Down

In the middle and late 20s, sometimes early 30s, the period of unencumbered drifting, floundering, or trial comes to an end. These are the years of marrying and establishing a home and settling into a community and leisure activities. More often, homemaking and child rearing become predominant and the school and church become the secondary foci of family activity. With dependents or without, working couples are emotionally and socially interdependent. There is a feeling of needing to develop economic security and the social support systems that are generally both the result and cause of stability in the career.

These are therefore the years of establishment. In this stage the young men and women who have not laid good foundations for emerging and evolving careers will continue the floundering or drifting of the years after leaving school and college. Lacking a good experience record, they will not look promising to employers and may join the ranks of the permanently unemployed. Concern about youth unemployment has, since the middle 1970s, directed increasing attention to this problem both here and in Europe (Watts, 1983). As a result, postschool job training programs such as those of the Great Depression have been revived. Special help is being provided for entry into the labor force before the eligibility period expires. But these programs touch only a small percentage of those floundering in the labor market or retreating to its margins. There is a need for substantive administrative ability and political skills to develop transition programs for the unestablished. Otherwise, the establishment stage will become, for far too many people, a period of establishment in nothing.

In the meantime, those with the personal potential and with the environmental resources that facilitate stabilizing must not be forgotten. Given their importance to society, they are not likely to be. Because their ability to cope or to muddle through has enabled them to find stable

places in the economy, it is very likely that too few of them will get needed help in the form of transition counseling. Yet, this is a period that is more important to the economy than is the transition to retirement, which has commanded attention. Perhaps there is room for optimism that the increasing attention given in recent years to career development in work situations (Montross & Shinkman, 1981; Super & Hall, 1978), will continue. New insights into how to facilitate stabilizing in a career will be developed and translated into career development programs. The concept of stabilizing in a career needs to include the idea of career change. Stabilizing means handling personal and situational changes in ways that keep them from being disruptive. To do this, career development programs must help men and women to understand and cope with the evolutionary and revolutionary changes that they may encounter in the near and distant future.

The Third Transition: Adapting to Stability and Instability

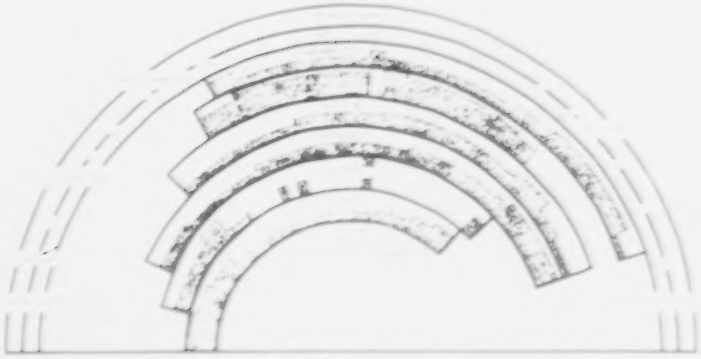
For many people in their 30s adjustment to a stable job is difficult. Others are unable to stabilize in a constructive way. It is possible to stabilize in a life of vagrancy or crime, but in career development theory, stabilizing and establishment have come to have a positive meaning. Those who find settling down unsatisfying have often assimilated the middle-class notion of a career as a ladder to be climbed, and climbing too often becomes a "must" and a "cannot." Not everyone can be the general manager or executive officer, and armies have more privates than sergeants, more captains than colonels. The 30s are a period in which many people reexamine their careers, their marriages (or lack thereof), and their social lives. People wonder whether they are getting as much out of life as they might. The life career rainbow, seen in Figure 2, used with its arcs blank in adult career development workshops, frequently brings these role dissatisfactions to the surface in seemingly well-adjusted people. In group or individual counseling they review their careers as they have evolved and as they would like them to evolve in the future and see their shortcomings.

Some of these adults settle down resignedly to frustration at their desks, counters, or workbenches while their managers wonder how to motivate them to greater productivity. Others recognize that with updating of their knowledge and skills, innovating in their work, or with lateral moves and leisure outlets, they may find new satisfactions in the balance of their work and leisure lives. That Alexander the Great wept at the thought of having no more worlds to conquer was a reflection on his knowledge of the world, on his ability to enjoy what he had, and on his personality. But legend says he wept nevertheless. Those who find themselves pursuing unstable or multiple-trial careers (Miller and Form, 1951) and Super (1957, 1985) add to the ranks of the dissatisfied. Many adults, however, do enjoy careers in which they make fairly frequent changes of employers, jobs, and even occupations—although often at some expense to or disruption of their families.

Again, as our understanding of this transition increases, career development programs will pay more attention to, and use more effective

Figure 2

The Life-Career Rainbow: Six Life Roles in Schematic Life Space. From "Career and Life Development (p. 192-234) by Donald E. Super. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Ed.), *Career Choice and Development, 1984.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Copyright 1984 by Jossey-Bass. Reprinted by permission.



did not want to keep on revising her earlier textbooks for the next 30 years of her working life. Looking for new worlds to conquer, she found a new aspect of her specialty that challenged her for another decade. In the third group was a man in a high technology industry who was the ideal "company man," moving from job to job and place to place as needed by his company. Then he suddenly decided (spurred by his wife and daughter) to resign and start his own small company, both to stabilize his home life and to express himself more fully at work.

The increasing pace of technological change makes it clear that stagnating will be more and more difficult for the rest of this century, for computers and automation are taking over many routine jobs even while they create others. Production methods are changing even in fishing; for example, entrepreneurs and innovative Mexicans who raise pond-grown shrimp are displacing the more picturesque shrimp boats and the seemingly less-adaptable fishermen of coastal Georgia. Unstable careers with frequent changes will become more common. This will call for more polyvalent education, more personal flexibility, life-long education and training, and continuously available career development and counseling programs and services. Stagnaters will face more career crises. Updaters will add to their knowledge and skills and thus experience self-renewal if not greater self-realization. Innovators will create new ways of doing things and new jobs, new occupations, and even new industries. These will allow new opportunities for self-expression.

The programs and services accompanying these changes will call for orientation programs concerning impending changes, counseling for coping with them, job rotation for potential stagnaters, and the use of leisure as a supplement and complement to work. Work may come to be seen as the means of maintaining a desired life style in which homemaking, leisure, and community service activities provide the more intrinsic satisfactions.

The Fifth Transition: Deceleration

The approach of the decline stage is often accompanied by slowing the pace of work, reducing time and energy expended, dropping or delegating tasks to focus on others that are more congenial, and lessening the commitment to work. There are exceptions at this stage, for some men and women put forth greater effort to keep in the mainstream of their occupations. They tend to be those who have been innovators, or those who for extraneous reasons (e.g., a second marriage and more children to educate) need to keep producing a substantial income beyond retirement. In such cases the entry into the decline stage is delayed.

In recent years counseling programs in business, industry, government, and educational institutions have grown in response to the needs resulting from variations in this transition. Books and audiovisual aids have been produced to help people prepare for and cope with the transition. Many of these have been described in previous chapters. An increasing number of programs, services, and materials of this type can be anticipated. They will show increased sophistication as needs are understood, their use is accepted, and the technologies become highly developed.

With deceleration and the anticipation of retirement, there has been an increased appreciation of the importance of leisure. But for leisure activities to be most meaningful in retirement they should have meaning before retirement, for then some skills and relevant contacts will have been developed. Lessened pressure to carry one's work home allows more time and inclination for the constructive use of leisure. Thus leisure counseling, leisure education, and leisure resources are increasing in availability and use. The career of the person portrayed in Figure 2 shows a significant amount of time given just after retirement to study for the more effective or challenging use of the new leisure. Evidence suggests that people benefit more in retirement if they have cultivated potential leisure interests prior to retirement. They suffer less in the transition to full-time retirement. The sudden cessation of work often leaves many people with a loss of role and self-esteem. Unhappy idleness then leads to domestic friction. Tapering off at work and expanding leisure roles is good for self-esteem as retirement approaches.

The Sixth Transition: Adjustment to Retirement

Only a decade or two ago much attention was being paid to facilitating early retirement at age 55 or 60 rather than the then-mandatory 65. Today the legal age has been raised to 70. Although early retirement is still possible and frequent in many settings, a significant proportion of these early "retirees" actually moves to another job or occupation. Sometimes the new job has more appeal because of interest in the work, greater freedom to pursue the work in the preferred way or location, or a simple desire for change. As always, the higher the status of the individual, the more freedom there will be to choose rather than simply to take what is available. These trends may be expected to continue and probably to increase as career development programs, services, and methods keep pace with increasing knowledge of careeer development.

Our Understanding of Aging

The increased numbers and proportions of older people, combined with better health and greater longevity, have had two important results. There is greater political activity by and for the elderly in both their active and inactive years. The second result has been a result of the first: political activity and legislation for the elderly has led to the creation of private and public agencies to study and to meet their needs, capacities, and care. Many of these agencies and their studies are identified within other chapters. What new developments might we expect?

It is now well established that people who remain active in retirement tend to live longer and more happily than do those who cease activity upon retiring. Those who carry over into retirement work or work-like activities (e.g., a former teacher tutoring slow learners after school) and established hobbies are better satisfied with their life situations (Steer, 1970). It is also known that mental ability as assessed by tested intelligence continues to increase beyond the once-credited limits of 15 or 16, when people keep on exposing themselves to learning situations. This happens despite the tendency to slow down with age, a tendency related

no doubt to neural changes but also to changes in values. Prestige and power tend to be valued less in late middle age than in adolescence and early adulthood. In old age there may be a slight increase in prestige values, perhaps in reaction to physical decline and a desire to maintain status. Altruism increases with old age as a desire to help people, but not necessarily for social interaction; kindness and goodwill may be easier when there is less stimulus for competition and more time to think about and to give to people. With age there is a mellowing, according to well-conceived and executed research (Lowenthal, 1975).

The Roles of the Elderly

The fact that young adults are less numerous than older adults has begun to have an impact on the roles played by the elderly. They are enriching the functioning of some organizations and playing unique roles as they return to work in indirect and direct ways. Some retired men and women move in retirement to regular jobs in which their knowledge and experience are needed because of special talents. Others are mobilized as volunteers, either in some form of advisory council to small businesses or as volunteers in museums, schools, and social agencies. The need for them is felt as more young women opt for full-time work, more married women with older children choose to work, and more women with grown children re-enter the labor force. Thus, the ranks of volunteers are depleted.

The fact that most women work has added to the demand for older people to help as employees or volunteers with young children and with the aged. Grandparenting has become a word along with parenting, in recognition of the increased importance of the role.

Thus, both population trends and the recognition of the roles that elderly people can play have conspired to facilitate the continuing career development of the elderly. The age is still one of decline, but the process is delayed and modified by better health and greater social usefulness. The manifestations of decline are more in the physical than the intellectual domain during the first 2 decades of retirement.

Retirement is a process of disengagement. Preretirement consists of diminishing the work role, and retirement consists of further diminishing that role and substituting the volunteer role. Regular commitment is dropped in favor of minimal-commitment odd jobs (e.g., board member or handyman) and leisure activities. In due course even these are dropped for sedentary activities within the place of residence.

In the past, services in this last stage have been more reactive than proactive. Now attention given to the elderly is resulting in programs and services that reach out to make the disengagement steps constructive. Disengagement is seen as a kind of *re*-engagement. The results should have positive effects on self-esteem and personality. Redefined, there will be a growth in disengagement programs.

CHANGING PROGRAMS, METHODS, AND MEASURES FOR A CHANGING SOCIETY

Although the patterns of careers and the stages of life and of work are likely to remain essentially the same as during the past 50 years, their

content in the decades ahead is likely to change considerably and the rates of movement of individuals through the maxicycle and its mini-cycles will differ. The year 2001 is approaching rapidly, but technological and economic changes are taking place still more rapidly. The post-World War-II babies can remember when there was no television. Those born after the Korean War can remember when man first walked on the moon.

Advances in career development and counseling programs need to focus on the problems of life's transitions and tasks of coping with transitions. The first developments needed are in the assessment of individual and group needs. The second advances need to be in counseling methods, both group and individual.

Assessment

In a developmental model of assessment recently proposed (Super, 1983), career or vocational assessments are viewed as really adequate only when the life stage and substage of the individual being assessed are taken into account. Age and year in school can give a rough indication of a student's probable stage of career development. Employment experience can yield a rough estimate of adult career development. Yet to rely on such data is like assuming that everyone has an average IQ, an average amount of mechanical aptitude, and a flat profile on an interest inventory. A 15-year-old may know a great deal about a preferred occupation and have a high interest score in that occupation, but know so little about the world of work that the wisdom of focusing on one field of work without knowing the other options must be questioned. This might be a case of premature foreclosure. If there has been little exploration, if there is little knowledge of career decision-making principles and determinants, this 15-year-old's "choice" may be the result of emotional fixation rather than rational decision making. Furthermore, the role of worker may seem so unimportant to this 15-year-old that motivation to do well on aptitude tests and to respond thoughtfully to interest inventories is lacking. Such cases are frequent in youths who are so rich or so poor that the need and the opportunity to work may seem remote. Such attitudes were once quite common among girls and women who grew up in environments in which a woman's role was in the home.

Career Maturity and Role Salience

To help with such assessments, tests and inventories of career maturity and of role salience have recently been developed. The former were first made generally available during the 1970s and the latter only now. An anticipated technological advance of the next 10 or 15 years will undoubtedly be a substantial increase in the use of such instruments. With them will come a better understanding of readiness to make career decisions and to cope with vocational development tasks.

Career maturity. The pioneer theoretical work on career development was done 35 years ago by the Career Pattern Study (Super, Crites, Hummel, Moser, Overstreet, & Warnath, 1957; Super, 1985). In this study theory was developed and tested with cumbersome but reliable and valid

innovative measures (Jordaan & Heyde, 1979; Super & Overstreet, 1960). This work led to the development of the first practical measure of vocational or career maturity (Crites, 1973, 1978), the Career Maturity Inventory (CMI). A little later an instrument that was being widely used in research and evaluation was made available for general use (Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Jordaan, & Myers, 1981 and 1982)—the Career Development Inventory (CDI). These two pioneer but well researched and practical measures were accompanied by the Cognitive Vocational Maturity Test (CVMT), well researched but not yet published (Westbrook & Parry-Hill, 1967). The CVMT and the CMI are for use in high schools, whereas the CDI has both high school and college forms. No equivalent adult forms have been developed because the universes of attitudes and knowledge relevant to careers in adulthood differ so with occupation, education, and socioeconomic status (Super & Kidd, 1979). However, the Adult Career Concerns Inventory (ACCI: Super, Thompson, Lindeman, Myers, & Jordaan, 1985) has been developed and is now available for research and exploratory use in counseling and evaluation. It assesses the degree and focus of adult career concerns and pinpoints the developmental tasks and life stages currently commanding attention.

The future will no doubt see multidimensional career development inventories for adults comparable to those for adolescents. They will assess the major dimensions of career maturity in adolescents (CDI and CMI) or what is called career adaptability in adults (Super & Kidd, 1979). It will also bring extensive use of such measures in schools, colleges, and adult counseling situations to improve assessment of counseling and career development needs and the interpretation of more traditional vocational tests and inventories.

Role Salience. It is the Work Importance Study that began both theoretical and technical work on role salience (Super, 1982), bringing together several strands of work that had been under way for some time on job involvement, career commitment, commitment to home and family, and work alienation. The WIS sought to sharpen and to put into operation concepts brought together in the Career Rainbow, a life-span, life-space model of careers (Super, 1980) used in career education courses (Super & Bowlsbey, 1979) and in computerized career guidance systems (Bowlsbey, 1984). Developed by a crossnational team of specialists and standardized in Australia, Canada, Portugal, Italy, Yugoslavia, Israel, and the United States, the Salience Inventory (Super & Nevill, 1985) assesses the relative importance of five major life career roles: student, worker, homemaker, leisurite, and citizen. Each role is examined in terms of the individual's actual and anticipated participation, commitment, and values. The SI can be used with both adolescents and adults to help ascertain the career commitment or occupational involvement of the respondent, and to compare this with his or her relative involvement in study, home and family, leisure activities, and community service (Super & Nevill, 1984).

Applications. The use of career maturity and salience inventories in individual assessment in schools, colleges, and adult counseling has been explored in workshops in the United States, France, Portugal and Can-

ada. Some high school cases have been written up in a recent journal article (Super, 1983). The widespread interest in these concepts and instruments suggests that the next decade or two will see important theoretical and practical developments in their use.

The Life Span

Interest in the whole life span dates from the work of G. Stanley Hall soon after the opening of the 20th century. It was cultivated next by Sidney Pressey in the 1930s. It then died down in developmental psychology to be revived in the 1970s when psychologists brought together their interests in childhood, adolescence, adulthood, and old age. They began studying life-span developmental psychology. Other psychologists who have studied cognitive, emotional, motor, or social development discovered the importance of not isolating one aspect of development from others if any one of them was to be fully understood. Books of case studies on personality development such as White's (1952) were thus followed by annual volumes such as those often edited by Baltes (1978). Although the developmentalists have tended to neglect work and occupations as theaters and foci of development (Super, 1985), vocational psychologists and a few developmentalists have sought to bring these approaches and bodies of knowledge together. The results have been treatises on career development (Osipow, 1983; Super, 1957, 1980; Vondracek, Lerner, & Schulenberg, 1983) that deal with aptitudes, interests, personality, life experience, and occupational choice over the whole life span. At the same time, authors of matching theories have greatly modified them to take into account changes in people and situations over time (Holland, 1966, rev. 1973 and 1985).

Late adolescence and early adulthood are now viewed as periods of occupational drifting, floundering, or trial leading to stabilizing. Young adulthood is a period of stabilizing for many, but significant numbers of men and women continue to drift or to flounder for some years. Chronological maturity does not necessarily lead to career maturity. Much is known about the psychological, educational and socio-economic determinants of drifting and floundering. The causes of work alienation are still being studied and there is much to learn about how to correct and avoid it. But we still do not know how to facilitate stabilizing. Important steps forward can be anticipated in work motivation and career commitment, and in education and guidance to turn drifting and floundering into exploration and stabilization.

Attempts to put our new knowledge and technologies to work in this way are seen in the computerization of career or vocational guidance, exemplified by Discover, Discover II, and Discover for Business and Industry (Bowlsbey, 1984) and SIGI (Katz, Chapman, Norris, & Pears, 1977) described in Heppner (1985). Careers are increasingly being treated as dynamic manifestations of people adapting to environments and of environments being adapted to people. "Career choice" is a series of mini-choices. Other attempts are made in career education courses that deal with choice as emergent over time, courses in which career development is treated as guided and evaluated occupational exploration (e.g., Super & Bowlsbey, 1979).

Dual Careers

The term dual career has two meanings. That which is currently accepted is that of a man and woman living and homemaking together while each also pursues an occupational career. These are best called *conjoint or coupled careers*. The term has also denoted the pursuit by one person of two careers, one occupational and the other homemaking, or one occupational and the other civic, or one in one occupation and the other in another occupation (e.g., a school teacher by day and a bartender at night). These could be called *dual-role careers*. Both conceptions should be kept in mind and better understood. Fortunately, more attention in recent years has been directed to each type of dual career, although it is the husband-wife duality (coupled careers) that has commanded the most attention and research. An exception is the interest in single parents as homemakers and workers that has recently stimulated research and counseling efforts in dual-role careers.

The future will no doubt see important developments in our understanding of the nature of both dual-role careers and coupled careers. Through this understanding of and attempting to help with the associated problems, there will be improved aids and better services for working wives, for homemaking husbands, and for persons who work at two different jobs or occupations.

Leisure

Leisure has now become legitimate both in the eyes of the public and in the work of behavioral scientists and practicing counselors. At one time it was a subject of study largely by philosophers and sociologically oriented historians. The psychology of avocations (Super, 1940) went virtually unnoticed and vocational psychology pre-empted all of the time and energies of those who might have studied leisure. Now a new field of leisure studies and leisure counseling has come into being (McDaniels, 1984). The reasons for this change of interest and redirection of effort are complex. They include a decline in the Protestant work ethic, greater awareness of the routine and psychologically unrewarding nature of much work (Havighurst's "society maintaining" as contrasted with "ego involving jobs" in Borow, 1964, pp. 226–227), and the increase in the leisure time available through shorter working hours, increased longevity, and unemployment.

As result, more is now known about education-work-leisure relationships and how each can contribute to the other. There is a danger that attitudes toward leisure may polarize: for some leisure is a preparation for work, for others it is a compensation for work, and for still others it is valuable in its own right and through its contribution to other roles. Knowledge of and interest in leisure will be put to work more than ever as leisure becomes more generally available, its importance in human development and adjustment are realized, resources for fostering its effective use are improved, and guidance and counseling personnel equip themselves to provide help in its use.

Innovation

What has preceded is, of course, innovation, either recent, current, or anticipated. There are other trends that might be so classified, trends such as the increased use of peer counselors and group methods. Much has been learned about how to make better use of them. There have accordingly been great advances in both theory and practice in these areas.

But there is another kind of innovation, one that has had very little attention. This is guidance and counseling for innovation in the world of work. The extensive creativity that recent decades have fostered should bear fruit in tools and methods for the guidance and counseling of capacity and inclination to innovate. It is not just a matter of identifying, developing, and unleashing talent, but also one of helping youth and adults to recognize that not all opportunities for new occupations, new jobs, and new enterprises are *found* in the labor market and the economy. Some of them are *made* by the opportunity seeker. Vasco de Gama *created* the opportunity for direct trade with India and the East Indies. Eli Whitney *invented* a cotton gin that developed both the production of cotton and the market for it. Thomas Edison devised the gramophone and the electric light and thus created jobs in producing, distributing, and servicing them, and Henry Ford found much needed ways of making large numbers of automobiles available to large numbers of people at low prices. Such creations of new opportunities are common; the contemporary equivalent is the computer and the software industry that have changed so drastically since their invention only a generation ago.

It is true that only a small percentage of the population are innovators like Da Gama, Whitney, Edison, Ford, and the teams that invented the computer and the microchip. Those named are only a small sample of the innovators who might have been named. They include only Americans, after the 15th-century Da Gama, and only mechanical and electrical inventors. No attempt was made to name social innovators such as Robert Owen, Arnold Toynbee, and Jane Addams; industrial innovators like the Rowntrees; or business innovators such as Sears and Roebuck.

The innovators may be a small percentage of the population, but how many more resources and opportunities the world would now have if more effort had been exerted to help more such people to develop rather than merely leaving it to them to find a way to emerge through the obstacles and inertias of established organizations and of established ways of doing things!

Efforts to help and to find such people are multiplying. Schools develop special programs for the gifted, alternative schools are established for those who seem to not fit into the standard system, and special education programs are set up for those who cannot fit into regular classes. In industry a few organizations have recognized the importance and long-term financial returns that result from identifying a few especially innovative people and letting them work on problems and projects of their own choosing. Some mistakes are made in the choice of individuals, but the same comment can be made concerning other industrial decisions, such as those at Three-Mile Island and at Bhopal, those that produced

the Edsel, and those that produce the annual box office failures of the movies and the theater.

CONCLUSION

Perhaps this attempt to foresee what will happen in career development and in career counseling should close with this optimistic note about the future. The developments of the 20 years from 1920 to 1940 made available the tools for the assessment of vocational aptitudes and interests and for using occupational information in counseling. The developments of the next score of years, from 1940 to 1960, gave us a better understanding and mastery of the methods and techniques of guidance and counseling, and laid the groundwork for the concept and assessment of career development. The period from 1960 to 1980 saw the widespread adoption of these latter concepts and the creation of methods and programs for career development. Each decade, each score of years, each generation has produced its own innovators and innovations, building on prior progress. Social improvement is not necessarily linear and inevitable. But it seems reasonable to expect that, with better-trained people working in the field of career development and counseling, with better resources, progress in adult counseling will continue at the present accelerated rate.

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